The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 28, 1900.

The Week.

There was published last week a proposal for peace in the Philippines presented by six of the Filipino leaders, in behalf of a meeting of two hundred of their followers, which was held in Manila on Thursday. The proposal embraced the following terms, upon the acceptance of which these leaders agreed to use their influence with Aguinaldo and all the leaders and forces now in arms against the United States, to discontinue hostilities, viz.;

"(1.) Amnesty.
"(2.) The return by the Americans to the Filipinos of confiscated property.
"(3.) Employment for the revolutionary generals in the navy and milita when established.
"(4.) The application of the Filipino revenues to succor needy Filipino soldiers.
"(5.) A guarantee to the Filipinos of the exercise of personal rights accorded to Americans by their Constitution.
"(6.) Establishment of civil governments at Manila and in the provinces.
"(7.) Expulsion of the friars."

A later dispatch from Manila stated that Gen. MacArthur had rejected the seventh condition, "the expulsion of the friars," because he had no authority to grant it, but must leave it to be decided by the Taft Commission; also, that he could not guarantee to the Filipinos the right of trial by jury or the right to keep and bear arms, though both are accorded to the Americans by their Constitution.

It must be the ardent desire of every patriotic and humane citizen that killing and burning in the Philippines shall cease. This is the first apparent step to any settlement of the difficulties in which we have been floundering for the past sixteen months. It may turn out that the six leaders who made these proposals are only shamming in order to gain time and better opportunity to renew hostilities. They may be like the "Amigos" of the rural districts, ready to welcome our troops to-day and shoot them in the back to-morrow. Their influence with Aguinaldo may not be so great as they suppose. The whole scheme may fall through for want of responsibility or for want of good faith on the other side; but, supposing it to be acceptable to Aguinaldo and his following, what are the obstacles to our acceptance of the terms named? The only one we can discover is the fact that we agreed in the treaty of peace with Spain to protect the friars in their rights of property. As for "employment for the revolutionary generals in the navy and militia," it is what Sir George Clarke begged Capt. Mahan to urge upon our Government from the start. Take Aguinaldo, he wrote, and make him Governor of Luzon. But Gen. Merritt avoided the Filipino leader. Otis never saw him; and the miserable drift into miserable hostility was unchecked.

What is *in* the Republican platform we all know, or can know, by reading it. What was kept out of it we are just beginning to find out. First of the outs is a plank on Expansion in these words:

"We reassert the principle, which was the watchword of the Republican party in its first great battle, of which Abraham Lincoln was the illustrious champion, and on which he was elected President, that Congress has full legislative power over territory belonging to the United States, subject only to the fundamental safeguards of liberty, justice, and personal rights."

Gen. Grosvenor says that this plank was agreed upon first by President McKinley, and afterwards by the sub-committee on the platform, but that it "was drivelled out by a driveller from New York, who had charge of that branch of the work." Mr. Lemuel E. Quigg admits that he was the Secretary of the Sub-Committee on Platform, but he denies flatly that he did anything else than carry out the orders of the Committee. He denies that anything was put into or taken out of the platform surreptitiously, or without due consideration by the Committee. He gives a detailed account of what occurred in the Committee in reference to this particular plank. Here he has the great advantage over Grosvenor that he knows what took place in the committee-room, while Grosvenor can only conjecture. Moreover, Quigg's statement is intrinsically and manifestly the correct one, since no individual member could alter the platform, of his own motion, without instant detection and exposure, and perpetual infamy afterward. Quigg says that the Platform Committee considered it unwise to adopt the Grosvenor-McKinley plank, because the question involved in it was pending in the Supreme Court, and it might be embarrassing to the party if a decision should be rendered contrary to the platform. This shows how much more powerful in making a party platform is the man who has the last hack at it than the President of the United States, or a member of Congress who is not on the Committee. The man who has this power, and uses it for wise ends, can smile when called a driveller by rival statesmen and platform-makers. It should be explained, however, that no such plank was in the platform on which Abraham Lincoln was elected President, and that the Republican party had no such watchword in its first great battle, or in any battle. The platform of 1860 said: "The new dogma, that the Constitution, of its own force, carries slavery into any or all of the Territories of the United States, is a dangerous political heresy," etc.; which is quite a different thing from the Grosvenor-McKinley paragraph.

Grosvenor complains of the loss of another paragraph—one relating to steamship subsidies; or, rather, he complains that a paragraph which "had passed the scrutiny of the leaders of the party" was emasculated after it left their hands. The following "ringing sentiment," he says, was almost entirely left out:

"Our national defence and naval efficiency require merchant auxiliaries as a nursery for skilled officers and trained seamen. For the restoration of merchant marine, which was our early glory on the seas, we advocate such legislation as will enable American ships to again carry our foreign commerce."

The loss of this paragraph is not charged upon Quigg. The loser of it is not yet identified, but we can imagine that he might be looked for in the States of Indiana, Iowa, or Minnesota. It is possible that he detected the ring of a bad coin in the ringing sentiment, and laid it aside for that reason. There are many ways to account for its disappearance, but the most natural one is that the real leaders of the party *ad hoc* were not the men whom Grosvenor had in mind when he said that his resolution had passed their scrutiny. Such mistakes have been made before.

Nothing could illustrate the lowering of tone in the Republican party more strikingly than the success of Addicks in at last securing recognition as the head of the party in Delaware, the Committee on Credentials having decided in his favor by the overwhelming vote of thirty-eight to nine. This result represents the final triumph of the most persistent, extensive, and audacious attempt to corrupt the electorate of a whole State which has ever been seen in this Union. Addicks set out, many years ago, to secure a United States Senatorship by the buying of votes, and he has kept at it every time that a seat has fallen vacant, until now the prize seems to be within his grasp. The next Legislature will choose two Senators. If the Republicans shall control it, he will be sure of the office, while his relations with one of the Democratic factions are so intimate that he ought to be able to make a trade if that party should have a majority of the legislators. At any rate, the national council of the party now accepts him as a State leader, worthy to rank with Hanna and Quay and Platt in his absolute control of the Republican organization in his commonwealth.

Quay profited greatly by the Republican National Convention. It is hardly

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too much to say that it rehabilitated him. Whenever he appeared before the Convention he was greeted with extraordinary demonstrations of approval. It is notorious that these demonstrations were started by Quay heelers among the ushers, and were taken up by the thousands of machine followers with whom Mayor Ashbridge had packed the galleries. Nevertheless, the display could not fail to impress observers, and it seems to have affected Hanna himself, especially when taken in connection with the demonstration of Quay's power over the Pennsylvania delegation. It is announced, and there is no reason to doubt the truth of the story, that the Chairman of the Republican National Committee has notified the "insurgents" that "there must be no sulking," and that the Administration does not like their plan of entering into fusion schemes with the Democrats to beat Quay candidates for the Legislature. The indications now are that the "harmony" policy, which is so strongly favored by President McKinley, will result, among other things, in the return of Quay to the Senate next winter.

Quay is not the source from which one expects a scheme of reform, and his motives are, of course, always open to suspicion. But he was entirely sound in his contention that a new and fairer system of representation in Republican national conventions ought to be adopted, and the plan which he advanced was based upon the right principle. Giving each State four delegates-at-large, as each has two members of the Senate, the rest were to be apportioned according to the number of Republican votes cast. This would increase the representation of States at the North like Massachusetts, New York, Indiana, and Iowa, which are either Republican, or can be hopefully contested by the party, and would greatly reduce the number of delegates from hopelessly Democratic States at the South; Alabama, for example, shrinking from 22 to 9; and Mississippi from 18 to 5. The justice of such a readjustment has long been clear to every candid man, but the politicians who run the Republican organization in the South have always opposed any restriction of their power, while their Northern brethren have dreaded to offend them because they wanted their votes for one or another candidate for President. There was no reason why the matter should not be taken up and settled on its merits—except that it was so much easier to shirk it; and to this Quay himself finally agreed, having accomplished his purpose of driving the Southern delegates to support Roosevelt.

Platt now makes little effort to conceal the animus against Roosevelt which led the New York boss to work strenuously to kick the Governor up-stairs into the Vice-Presidency. He observes, with sinister smiles, that "some people" had grave doubts all along of Roosevelt's ability to carry the State as a candidate for Governor this fall. Yet Platt adds, by way of left-handed compliment, that he has no doubt of the Colonel's carrying the State as candidate for the Vice-Presidency. This is as much as saying that McKinley is counted upon to drag through an unpopular nominee. What plans the boss has in reserve he does not yet deign to reveal; but the reformers "within the party," whom he has now so completely dished, can give a good guess. A Platt dummy for Governor, the New York County machine got ready for the Mayoralty campaign next year by purging it of every independent-minded man—is it any wonder that the Tammany leaders are all smiles at the prospect? It was to thwart and defeat a return to the old régime of deals between the two machines in State and city that Roosevelt valiantly announced, "My duty is here." Now, to the intense dejection of his friends whom he had enlisted for the good fight of reform in this State, and who were pointing to him as the stern, strong man who would swear to his own hurt and change not, he leaves them in the lurch. Hereafter, he will have to be as careful as McKinley himself how he uses the word "duty."

What should a Governor do if he is nominated for the Presidency or the Vice-Presidency six months before the end of his term? This question is raised by the selection of Roosevelt for the second place on the Republican ticket. The obvious answer would seem to be that he should keep on discharging the duties of Executive in the same way as though he had not been suggested for another position. On general principles every official should serve out the term for which he was elected, unless he is promoted to another before the term ends. It is equally plain that he should not hold one office and neglect its duties while he seeks another. A very good precedent was set by Grover Cleveland when he was nominated for President in July, 1884. He retained the Governorship of New York until the following January, and discharged its duties with the same fidelity during the last half of 1884 as during the same period of 1883. He was away from the executive chamber at Albany only three or four times in the whole campaign, and then only for a day or two at a time, and did not go outside of the State, except for a hasty trip to New Haven, Conn., and another to Newark, N. J., in the last week. Except for these brief absences from his office, growing out of his nomination for the Presidency, Mr. Cleveland conducted himself as Governor precisely as he would have done if somebody else had been made the national leader of his party.

Gov. Roosevelt will find the path of safety in following the precedent thus established by one of his predecessors sixteen years ago. There is no more reason why he should resign the Executive office because he has been nominated for a national position in 1900, than there was for Mr. Cleveland's withdrawal under the same circumstances in 1884. It is, however, quite as essential that the present Governor should sedulously apply himself to a faithful discharge of his duties during the next few months as it was that Mr. Cleveland should do the same thing sixteen years ago. Indeed, it is more essential that there shall be a single-minded devotion to these duties this year than in 1884, because there is now an uncommon accumulation of most important responsibilities for the Executive. Charges are pending against three of the highest officials in New York city, the Mayor, the Comptroller, and the District Attorney, and there should be no question of abundant opportunity for their deliberate consideration by the Governor. It would be a national scandal if Col. Roosevelt were to spend the bulk of his time during the next few months rushing over the country to electioneer for the Republican ticket, only making brief stop-over stays at Albany to hurry through a mass of business in helter-skelter fashion. The Governor should have too much respect for his present office to comply with the demands which will be made, that he shall give most of his energy to stump-speaking and Rough-Riding in all parts of the nation.

The conference of Anti-Imperialists in this city on Monday was devoted almost entirely to a discussion of the proper attitude toward the candidates for President this year. A strong disposition to rebuke Mr. McKinley was manifested by nearly all of those who expressed themselves, but it was finally decided by a unanimous vote to postpone any action until a general conference or convention can be held, after the meeting of the Democratic National Convention next month—probably in some city in the Middle West about the 1st of August. There is no need, however, to wait a day about active work against Imperialism in one direction, which can be prosecuted without any reference to candidates for the Presidency. This is an earnest campaign to secure the election next November of a House of Representatives with a majority of members opposed to Imperialism. In work to this end there can be hearty union among men who are of the same mind as to the duty of Congress, however they may vote for President next November. One great advantage of this campaign is the fact that

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it does not need to be conducted exclusively along partisan lines. A number of the strongest opponents of Imperialism in the present Congress are Republicans. The most vigorous opposition to the Porto Rican tariff in the House a few months ago came from prominent Representatives belonging to the dominant party. It was a group of Republicans—McCall and Littlefield from New England, Crumpacker and several others from the Middle West—which forced the radical transformation of the measure, so that what was originally to be a permanent tariff became a provision for free trade within two years. On the other hand, there were Democrats from Pennsylvania, Louisiana, and California who coöperated with the bulk of the Republicans in sustaining the extreme Imperialist policy when it came up for the first time.

It is possible for a national election to result in the choice of a President of one party and of a House of Representatives controlled by the Opposition. This all but happened twenty years ago. Garfield was elected President in 1880 by 214 electoral votes to only 155 for Hancock, but his supporters carried only 148 of the 293 Congressional districts, so that the Republicans had but one more than a bare majority when the House was organized. In the elections of 1898, the Republicans obtained only a small majority of the House, although in that year there were many States which they carried by large majorities. The lower branch of Congress now consists of 357 members, and the Republicans elected only 186 Representatives, or but seven more than a majority. Among these 186 Representatives were no fewer than nine who, at one stage or another of the Porto Rican controversy, voted against Imperialism, and the party leaders would have been in despair if they had not secured the active help of four Democrats when the first test was made, and the only less valuable assistance of four more who stayed away without securing pairs.

Prosperity in the wheat district has very much to do, as the country has learned since 1896, with national prosperity, and the Republican party is going into the campaign with prosperity as its chief reliance for success. A ruinous harvest failure—such, for instance, as the destruction of the Kansas and Nebraska corn crop in 1894, which cut down the yield four hundred million bushels—would make havoc with this Administration argument. Such an event would in no way be chargeable to the party. But people have a way of blaming the ruling powers for the shortcomings of nature, and it would be hard for the party which condemned Mr. Cleveland for the low price of wheat in 1895 and the corn shortage of 1894, to escape some similar inference on its own account in the case of harvest failure. For the moment, it is hard to say which way the scales will really turn in the matter of the wheat crop's bearing on politics. If the predictions of the more pessimistic experts turn out true, and half the wheat crop of North Dakota is destroyed, it might not be easy for the Republicans to hold the three electoral votes of the State, which were won in 1896 by 5,000 plurality, and were divided with the Opposition in 1892. If the South Dakota farmers suffer similarly, its four electoral votes would not be likely to return from the other party. But as against these possibilities lies the curious fact that Nebraska, the poor and discontented State of 1896, promises this year to reap the largest wheat crop in its history—a crop, moreover, which, because of the Dakota shortage, will sell at highly profitable prices. An accident of nature is therefore menacing Mr. Bryan in his own political stronghold, and the same good conditions prevail in Kansas.

We conclude that President McKinley has been perfectly advised that there is no need as yet to call Congress together to deal with the Chinese crisis. There is no question of making a declaration of war. The Executive has simply been doing his duty in endeavoring to protect American citizens. The time may come when the aid of Congress will be necessary, if not to make a formal declaration of war, at least to provide men and money. But Secretary Hay's quiet and efficient measures, meeting each day's situation as it arises, and striving in every way to minimize rather than inflame the difficulty, have been far better chosen than anything likely to be extracted from the wisdom of Congress. Unless things go from bad to worse, there is power enough in the Executive to deal with the Chinese situation, so far as American interests are concerned. The warlike goings on in China have a queer look. The men who are killed on either side might well wonder if a real state of war could be more deadly to them than this form of nominal peace; but we think it clear that, legally, the invasion of China may or may not be magnificent, but it is not war.

It is to be hoped that the reports of attacks on Japanese laborers in Montana are exaggerated. The number of these immigrants has increased very much of late, and their presence has called forth protests from the labor-unions Hitherto the Japanese have not been assaulted, but trouble has been brewing, and if steps are not promptly taken to protect them, the results may be very serious. The Government of Japan is a very different affair from that of China, and Japan itself is now on the same plane as the other Powers. The maltreatment of the Chinese in this country, which has in some cases been barbarous, has been endured with patience, or indifference, by their Government. Japan will not and cannot submit to such indignities. Any persecution of her subjects while they are in this country, having a right to expect protection under law and treaty, will certainly be resented. We have every reason to wish that our relations with the Japanese should continue to be of the most friendly character. So far as commerce is concerned, our trade with them promises to be of great value, and if we had a rational tariff, it would rapidly expand. Apart from material considerations, the Japanese have taken such wonderful strides in civilization as to deserve respect and sympathy. As human beings, Japanese are no better than Chinese; but internationally they have a higher status, and our responsibilities toward them are thus enlarged. The fact that the Japanese Government has taken steps to limit emigration to this country, should cause our authorities to see that such Japanese as are here receive ample protection.

Lord Salisbury must have heaved a sigh of relief when he read Chamberlain's speech last week and found that the Colonial Secretary had not attempted to force the Premier's hand in the matter of dissolving Parliament. The Conservatives have been dreading that Chamberlain would take the bit in his teeth, and blurt out his desire that the general election be held at once. Such is his power within the party, and so much is his terribly frank and direct way of "going for" what he wants dreaded by Liberal-Unionist leaders, that they half expected him to say something to embarrass, if not commit, the Government. But he wickedly refused to "gratify the curiosity of the Opposition," and had his fling, instead, at the United States for holding up hands in holy horror at England for doing in South Africa very much the same thing that America is doing in the Philippines—*i. e.*, subjugating a race that is struggling to be free. The Hon. Joseph did not call it that. He said that in both cases "a great work of civilization and humanity" was being carried out. But what he wanted to know—and there is much force in his question—was why the United States, after seeing that England did not "enter into quizzical disquisitions" about our stamping out Filipino independence, should suddenly discover such qualms about the snuffing out of Dutch independence in South Africa. There are fine possibilities of lurking sarcasm in Mr. Chamberlain's assertion: "I believe that the great majority of true Americans recognize that our aims in this war are as high and unselfish as those which animated themselves in the Spanish-American struggle."

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PLATFORM AND GLOSS.

A morning newspaper, a very ardent advocate of "Expansion," betrayed astonishment and disgust at the platform adopted at Philadelphia on June 20, and wondered who wrote it and who revised it. It found some small compensation, however, in the speeches of Senators Wolcott and Lodge, which, it says, supplement the platform satisfactorily, and it thinks also that its deficiencies are made good by the acts of the Republican party during the past year or two. The reason for the *Sun's* disgust is to be sought in the following plank:

"In accepting by the Treaty of Paris the just responsibilities of our victories in the Spanish war, the President and the Senate won the undoubted approval of the American people. No other course was possible than to destroy Spain's sovereignty throughout the West Indies and in the Philippine Islands. That course created our responsibility, before the world and with the unorganized population whom our intervention had freed from Spain, to provide for the maintenance of law and order, and for the establishment of good government, and for the performance of international obligations. Our authority could not be less than our responsibility, and wherever sovereign rights were extended, it became the high duty of the Government to maintain its authority to put down armed insurrection, and to confer the blessings of liberty and civilization upon all the rescued peoples. The largest measure of self-government consistent with their welfare and our duties shall be secured to them by law. To Cuba independence and self-government were assured in the same voice by which war was declared, and to the letter this pledge shall be performed."

This deliverance leaves the party facing both ways in the coming campaign. It is contrived to suit the views of Senators Hoar, Hale, Mason, and Wellington, and of Representatives McCall, Littlefield, and Crumpacker, as well as those of Lodge, Wolcott, and the avowed Expansionists. It accords with the party's inconsistency in dealing with the question in Congress. During the whole session only one step was taken to define the party's position on Imperialism—in the Porto Rican law—and on that subject the platform expresses no opinion at all. On the Philippine question the party is free, so far as the platform goes, to grant the Filipinos complete independence. Of course, there is no such intention at present, but if future events, occurring either in the Philippines or in the United States, should make such a policy advisable, there is nothing in this platform to prevent the adoption of such a policy. The only way the Democrats can make a clear issue on the question is to promise an unconditional withdrawal of our troops from the Philippines; for if they favor a withdrawal only when order is restored, or some similar condition is fulfilled, the public will see no difference between the two platforms.

On the currency question the platform is keyed up to concert pitch. "We renew our allegiance to the gold standard," it says, and then it proceeds to endorse, in somewhat veiled language, the programme of the Indianapolis Monetary Commission for what is called "banking on assets" as distinguished from bond security. The words used are these:

"We recognize that interest rates are a potent factor in production and business activity; and for the purpose of further equalizing and of further lowering the rates of interest, we favor such monetary legislation as will enable the varying needs of the season and of all sections to be promptly met, in order that trade may be evenly sustained, labor steadily employed, and commerce enlarged."

This does not commit the party to a change in the present mode of securing banknote issues, but it furnishes a basis and groundwork for future agitation by the supporters of the Indianapolis movement; and to this there can be no objection.

The steamship-subsidy crowd "got left" in the platform, as we anticipated they would. The plank merely favors "legislation which will enable us to recover our former place in the trade-carrying fleets of the world." The use of the phrase "trade-carrying fleets," which we have never seen before in the maritime vocabulary, would seem to exclude passenger-carrying fleets as the subjects of needed legislation, and, if this was the intention of the platform-makers, would suffice to knock the props from under the Hanna-Payne bill completely. Certainly the subsidy-hunters who thronged the lobbies of Congress last winter have not got what they wanted in the platform.

There is some self-restraint also in dealing with the Isthmian canal question: "We favor the construction, ownership, control, and protection of an Isthmian [not necessarily Nicaraguan] canal by the Government of the United States." The Clayton-Bulwer treaty is not mentioned, nor is the pending treaty by which that treaty is modified.

"We approve the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands to the United States." This brief and rather flatulent utterance is all that the platform gives us on this subject. The plank in favor of the purchase of the Danish islands, which was inserted in the platform of 1896, is conspicuously absent. Perhaps we have more islands than we can comfortably digest, or "benevolently assimilate," now.

The platform as a whole is better than we had looked for. It implies no change of heart in Mark Hanna, or Tom Platt, or Matt Quay; but it betokens a general apprehension in the party that they are to have a stiff fight this year, and that they will need all the help they can get; and to this end they are pandering somewhat to the moral sense of the community.

The addresses of Senators Wolcott and Lodge were in rather sharp contrast with the mild platitudes of the platform. Whereas that document was carefully framed so as to be as unobjectionable as possible, the speeches of the two Senators show plainly what the leaders of the party would like to do, and would do if they dared. Yet Senator Lodge was not quite so truculent as he has been on some former occasions. He promised that the inhabitants of the Philippines should be advanced as rapidly as possible "along the road to entire freedom, and to self-government under our flag." It will be rather difficult for the Democrats to promise anything that will sound better than that, unless, as we have said, they are willing to declare positively that our troops shall be withdrawn at once, and the Filipinos allowed to govern themselves now. Senator Lodge's declaration is one of many signs that the Administration is weary of the wretched entanglement caused by its arrogant proclamations, and is now disposed to come to terms with the unfortunate people who were forced into hostility by its despotic attitude.

In his account of the financial history of the last few years, Senator Lodge came a good deal nearer to the truth than Senator Wolcott, although he could not, as a partisan, give the credit of saving the country from coming to the silver standard to President Cleveland. He was prudent enough not to dwell long on that subject, and the greater part of his speech was an "arraignment" of the Democratic party under its present leaders. Here, it must be said, Senator Lodge had a good opportunity, and he made the most of it. As a matter of fact, the country has enjoyed two or three years of prosperity, and is now enjoying it. It does not follow that this prosperity is due to the McKinley Administration; but it is certainly true that the Democrats have so far done nothing to show that they would effect any improvement if they came into power, and Mr. Bryan is beyond question joined to the silver idol. Mr. Lodge asks the question, "Will prosperity continue if you make a change in your President and in the party which administers your Government?" He says that business confidence rests largely on sentiment, and asks if that sentiment would be a hopeful one the day after Bryan's election. No one can deny that the great mass of the business men of the country will ask these questions most seriously, and it will be very hard for the Democrats to answer them. It is true that material prosperity is not the best thing in the world. It is true that the disease of Imperialism demands the remedy of a change of Administration. But will not the remedy of a Bryanite Administration be worse than the disease? And, what is the most serious question of all, will it really afford any remedy for the evils of Imperialism? These are the questions which Senator Lodge artfully suggests, and the answers to which will perplex conscientious voters.

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THE NOMINATIONS.

That Mr. McKinley would be renominated for the Presidency had been known for many months before the meeting of the Republican National Convention. There was a time when the prize might have slipped from him. If Admiral Dewey, on his arrival in New York at the beginning of October, 1899, had allowed his name to be used as a rival candidate, there might have been an irresistible stampede to him. With Dewey shelved by his own act, the renomination of McKinley became inevitable. He had put the American republic on a new course. He had changed its inherited principles and its traditional policy. He had turned it out of its accustomed pathway. It was born in the belief that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed. He pushed it into a situation which compelled the Republican party to take a new stand and espouse a new doctrine. Expansion was sure to run into Imperialism. This was as certain as any step in political or social evolution since the world began. Possession of distant territories made it necessary to adopt principles for their government. Should these be American principles? Should they be based on the right of peoples to govern themselves? Should the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands be citizens or subjects? If citizens, then they must have all the rights of citizens, including that of free movement, and equal representation in the management of public affairs. But obviously they could not have the right of free movement without bringing up the question of Asiatic immigration in a more dangerous form than ever before. On the other hand, if they were not to have the rights of citizens, they would be subjects, ruled over by a republic; and since a republic can act only through political parties, they must be ruled by the appointees of whichever party happened to be in power. Call them proconsuls or what you will, the life-giving principle of the republic was immediately put in jeopardy by Expansion. This was the act of William McKinley, and this act made his renomination inevitable unless a more spectacular representative of the same principle, like Dewey or Roosevelt, should supersede him.

For this reason the Republican party is logical in renominating him, but it is logical in nothing else. It took the Philippine Islands by treaty sixteen months ago, but has not been able to decide yet how it shall govern them. Eight months ago Mr. McKinley was making speeches in the Northwest, and, in response to the question what kind of government we should give them, he said that that was a question for Congress to decide. Congress would meet soon, and he (the President) would be guided by its wisdom and follow its instructions. Congress met at the appointed time. Instead of deciding the question—instead of meeting the pregnant issues presented to it by the President, and still more by the march of events—it first made a pretence of referring the whole question back to the questioner.

The Spooner Bill, which embodied the party's purposes at the time of its introduction, proposed to put the whole government of the Philippines in the hands of the President—that is, to create the very kind of despotism which the Anti-Expansionists said would be the outcome of Expansion. But the party, on further reflection, decided to do nothing whatever—not even to turn the decision of the problem over to the President. Doing nothing would virtually leave everything in his hands, but it would not commit individual Congressmen to any particular ideas on the subject of Imperialism. It would not make anybody in particular responsible for anything, but would leave everybody free to spout as Wolcott does about the flag, and the bravery of our soldiers, and their sacred burial-places in the Philippines. Shall we ever withdraw the flag from that hallowed ground? Never, says Wolcott, never. Thus far, and no farther, has the Republican party gone in settling the great question which McKinley referred to Congress last October.

Gov. Roosevelt's nomination for the Vice-Presidency will, no doubt, be vastly popular with his party. We think it will add strength to the ticket, especially in the Middle West, where they do not take their politics sadly. The Rough Rider in second place will rouse a certain kind of enthusiasm, and doubtless win some votes, beyond the reach of the smooth writer at the head of the ticket. From the standpoint of political expediency, therefore, the naming of Roosevelt must be conceded to have been well advised; but in its effect upon the State of New York it will be little short of a disaster, while its result in lowering the personal prestige of the Governor himself is melancholy in the extreme.

Say what his apologists will, his nomination is a malign victory of Roosevelt's enemies over him. It was in their hands, not in those of his friends, that he placed himself. Grant the undoubtedly sincere and widespread demand for him in the West. It is yet as clear as daylight that if Platt had been willing to take Mr. Bliss, or any other respectable business figure-head from New York—the type of nominee that Hanna and McKinley undoubtedly desired—the Western enthusiasm for Roosevelt would have died without a murmur. The truth is, and everybody knows it, that Platt had recorded a solemn vow that Roosevelt should not be Governor again, and craftily and treacherously pushed forward his nomination for the Vice-Presidency to further his own schemes in this State. No one asserted in advance the danger of exactly this result more vehemently than Roosevelt's intimate friends, who denounced the plan of the boss to "side-track" the Governor for having been too independent, and for having, by his franchise-tax legislation, offended powerful corporations. As for Platt himself, those in his confidence have declared all along that his determination to get rid of Roosevelt was fixed. He has played with the Governor for four months, and has triumphantly tricked him at last.

Where is the dashing Roosevelt of other days, the soldier blunt and true, the one man in politics whose course was

"— an eagle flight, bold and forth on"?

His own words and acts are what compel us to see in him a faltering will and a judgment eaten into by political ambition. On February 12 he gave out an official statement at Albany declaring, "Under no circumstances could I, or would I, accept the nomination for the Vice-Presidency." Not that he despised the office, but, he said, "my duty is here." "Great problems have been faced and partially solved in this State, . . . and I hope that the work thus begun I may help carry to a successful conclusion." There spoke, everybody thought, a resolute and clear-sighted man. Lest there might be any misunderstanding, he took occasion within two weeks of the Convention to reiterate his position. His decision was "irrevocable"; he would "decline the nomination if it were made." Gov. Roosevelt was under no obligation to make these statements; but, having made them, having got his friends to believe them, mere self-respect should have prevented him from going to Philadelphia to exhibit himself as a nervous, harried, and worried man, not knowing his own mind. Was a gallant Rough Rider thus to be transformed into a man with his ear to the ground?

Gov. Roosevelt has frequently mounted the pulpit of the political preacher. We should like to hear from him now a new discourse on "efficiency." Or, if he prefers a magazine article, we suggest as a subject, "The Story of a Man and a Machine." For our part, we can see in the downfall of Roosevelt's hopes and plans only a new reading of the old lesson of the fatal folly of compromising with evil. He has boasted of his ability to dominate the machine. Confer with Platt? Why, certainly. A really strong man could breakfast or hob-nob with a boss and use him as an "instrument" for good government. But now we see. Those who play with fire will get burned. Those who sup with the devil, even with a long spoon, are sure to have to swallow a nauseous portion in the end. Roosevelt will now be able to jot this truth down in his political commonplace book. He was not going to be nominated for the Vice-Presidency because he had Platt's word for it, and Platt's word was as good as his bond. What does he think about that now?

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THE DEEPENING CHINESE DIFFICULTY.

When the Chinese question first became acute, a couple of weeks ago, everybody was talking of the final settlement—how extremely puzzling that would be. The preliminary step of putting down the mob, rescuing the ambassadors, deposing the Empress, and clearing the ground for a grand congress of the Powers at Pekin to decide what to do next, was universally thought to be easy. China had always yielded to a show of force, and she would now. Admiral Seymour, with 2,000 men, would march to Pekin and, joined by the guards at the legations, would be able to dictate terms. But that is all changed, and again we find that it is the first step that costs. The Powers begin to see that the subjugation of the infuriated millions of North China will be a long and bloody task, taxing the resources of civilization.

It is estimated that there are some 50,000 Chinese troops in the neighborhood of Pekin; and it has now become a moral certainty that they, or at least some of them, have joined fortunes with the Boxers, in a mad crusade against foreigners. Those Krupp quick-firing guns served against the foreign concession in Tientsin spoke of regularly trained artillerists. That the European Governments and our own now realize that they have to face China in arms, instead of a mere uprising of fanatical and badly armed peasants, is clear from the haste with which troops are being dispatched from all quarters to the scene of hostilities and of peril. The nations are dropping all perplexing questions about the ultimate fate of China while the immediate fate of their own ministers and consuls is so uncertain and may prove to be so appalling.

Happily, the common peril has caused international bickerings to cease. Japan and Russia were supposed to be ready to fly at each other's throats; yet they are now coöperating with the utmost harmony. The Russian Admiral sent a mixed force of 4,000 men from Taku on Sunday to the relief of the beleaguered foreigners in Tientsin, and nearly one-half the number were Japanese. It is like Guelf and Ghibelline in an Italian city of the Middle Ages sinking their bitter quarrels in order to unite against the common enemy. As the case stands, Russia and Japan are undoubtedly in a position to bring the largest force first to the spot. Probably 20,000 Russian soldiers are within reach. Japan, we suppose, could land 50,000 at Taku within a month. She would have marched to Pekin in 1895 if the Powers had let her. It would be an odd revenge of time if they should now be constrained to ask her to become the commissioner of civilization to rescue the imperilled foreigners in Pekin and set up some semblance of a responsible government.

Russian diplomacy and designs in the Orient are brought freshly to notice by the sudden death, at this crisis, of the Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs, Count Muravieff. The disappearance of the man in whose hand all the threads were held might seem to threaten confusion; but we already see how least of all in Russia may any man be said to be indispensable. Russian policy in the Far East is a matter of race inheritance and tradition, of generation after generation pushing on to the goal, without haste and without rest; and as one statesman goes, another comes to carry on the same work. Russia is, in fact, the one great Power now in the world which can play the Imperialistic rôle with proper grace. Even Japan has a Parliament and political parties, to vote money and to question the Government. Russia wears no such fetters. She interprets Imperialism as absolutism, as it must be to be truly successful, and her rulers brook no criticism. The Russian press is muzzled. It was not even allowed to publish the recent news about the triumph of Russian diplomacy in Korea. Such things become known to the public in St. Petersburg only by accident or by information leaking from foreign sources. The diplomats of Russia in the Orient may thus be assured that their footsteps will not be dogged, and their purposes thwarted, by publicity.

Nor is there in Russia the fickleness of popular opinion bred by a fickle press. We Imperialists of the new breed cannot keep our attention fixed long upon any one part of our Imperial domain. We have our successive fits of hysteria about Cuba, about Porto Rico, about the Philippines, only to drop each in disgust. Even in England they complain of like vacillation. Now it is Fashoda, now the Afghan frontier, now South Africa that fills the press with alarms; but each soon passes, and a public avid for some new thing demands sensations in other fields. Russia, however, suffers from no such embarrassments. Her age-long and unwearied purposes she holds to without changeableness; and, as we say, if her Imperialism could only be sure that its silence and secrecy did not mean enfeeblement by corruption, it would be the most triumphant thing of the kind in the world.

But Russia and all the rest have a tremendous job on their hands in China. These white man's burdens are, in truth, coming thick and fast. "The hate of those ye guard"—that certainly is a reward all the civilized nations will reap in China. And yet they have all been mad for cultivating the Chinese trade! The whole thing is a fine illustration for those who maintain the "ironical theory" of Providence—what Tacitus called the *ludibria rerum mortalium.*

THE LIBRARIANS AT MONTREAL.

MONTREAL, June, 1900.

It is the universal opinion of the attendants at the Montreal conference of the American Library Association that there has never been a better conducted, more successful, more satisfactory meeting. Mr. Thwaites, editor of the great republication of the Jesuit Relations, was certainly "indicated" as the man to preside in the region of early Jesuit missionary activity. His parliamentary capacity proved to be as great as his historical knowledge. Everything went smoothly, and each session concluded its own business. There was, to be sure, the usual want of time for adequate debate; but what debate there was, was perhaps all the more eager, interested, and to the point. Free access to open shelves received as much attention, and excited as much feeling, as last year at Atlanta; but neither year did the *odium forulicum* reach the pitch of ferocity which it always raises in an English library conference. There was the same appearance of a great majority in favor of a freedom carried as far as local circumstances will allow, if not a little farther.

The place that classification took at Atlanta in general attention was filled by cataloguing. Both subjects, almost excluded of late from the *Library Journal*, appear to engage the interest of members at once and deeply whenever there is a chance of introducing them. But, this year, cataloguing was the more important because the increased probability of carrying out some scheme of coöperative cataloguing renders it imperative that rules should be formulated which all the coöperating libraries can agree to. Now, Cutter's Rules, Linderfelt's Rules, the A. L. A. Code, the Library School rules, and the practice at various libraries differ not perhaps on very many points, but very widely on some points; and one problem—that of corporate entry—is of extremely difficult solution. It is greatly to be hoped that, with a spirit of compromise, there may come to be an agreement in essentials. If on any point—as of the entry of noblemen—there is irreconcilable diversity, some arrangement may perhaps be made for furnishing cards which can be used by either party.

The President's address took the character natural at the close of a century—a review of the past—though he wisely confined himself to the last decade, in which he could find as much progress to comment upon as in any other two decades; more than in the first three-quarters of the century. State library commissions, interstate, State, and district associations, library training schools, travelling and branch libraries and deliveries, travelling exhibitions, library advertising, children's rooms, coöperation with teachers, rooms for the blind, access to shelves, coöperative cataloguing, interlibrary loans and exchanges, the general erection of library buildings superb in appearance even if generally defective in plan, phenomenal gifts from philanthropists both of library buildings and of endowments, compulsory library legislation, improved methods of binding and issuing public documents—are all younger than the American Library Association, and most of them the accompaniment or the product of the last third of its life. The decade has to its credit seventeen State

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library commissions created, twenty State library associations founded, three library schools, and more summer library schools started, and the astounding sum of $24,000,000 given for the foundation or maintenance of public libraries. The address showed a warm appreciation of the good work wrought by travelling libraries in widening the horizon and improving life in small, isolated back-country hamlets, "corners," and even in larger rural communities, and by branch libraries not in specially prepared buildings, but wherever the railroad men, the firemen, or the policemen would accept books, or the school-teachers, the hospital doctors, or the shop-keepers would distribute them.

At this twenty-second conference most of the papers were, of course, a threshing out of old material. There was one new topic, the use of photographs, but lack of time prevented that from being followed, as it should have been, by an experience meeting. In library statistics, the advantage of comparing the size of the stock in a department with the issue from the department, to ascertain the demand for that class of books and how to satisfy or increase it, is not an absolutely new idea, but was for the first time made clear by a carefully worked out example (taken from the figures of the New York Free Circulating Library).

The most important topic was not a novelty, for it was introduced in 1853, at the first library convention ever held, by Mr. C. C. Jewett, then Librarian of the Smithsonian Institution. He was struck, as so many have been since, by the prodigious waste of effort involved in the fact that whereas a book is composed, written, put in type, only once for all the libraries that buy it, its cataloguing requires a separate investigation of facts, a separate decision on doubtful points, a separate writing of cards, a separate possibility of error at each of those libraries, so that the same work is done over and over again, with no advantage whatever accruing from the repetition. He proposed that a central office should catalogue and stereotype all titles, he invented a cheaper method of stereotyping, and he prepared a code of rules—good, but far from complete—for the cataloguing. His stereotyping process was a failure, and nothing came of the plan. It has been taken up since by others, but has always met with one fatal difficulty, the want of funds. If the work could be done on a large scale, it was sure to be a success; on a small scale, it could not succeed. The cost of cataloguing and printing divided among very many libraries would have been trifling for each, and the saving would have more than repaid the cost of distribution. But the enterprise was dependent on its subscribers; naturally they were comparatively few at first. Then, few books could be catalogued, but the cataloguers were compelled to demand, in order to cover their expenses, that the subscribers should take all the cards issued. The participating libraries found that the cost of keeping in order these cards, most of which were of no use to them because they had not the books, far exceeded any saving on the few cards that served for the books which they had. They had to maintain just as large a cataloguing force as ever. But if the enterprise could have undertaken to catalogue all the new American, English, French, and German books, and, with an easy system of ordering by numbered titles, to supply to libraries only such cards as they wanted, a large part of the needs of a large number of libraries would be met, and, as nothing succeeds like success, very many libraries would soon join. Then the central cataloguers would be able to attack the accumulations of the past, and no new library, hardly any old one, could afford to be out of the union. The plan certainly has not reached this point yet, but it has at this meeting taken a long step forward in this direction. A sufficient number of libraries have combined (so far as their librarians could pledge them) to insure an extensive experiment being tried with a reasonable hope of success. The results already obtained in a special field by a combination of a few great libraries were most encouraging. Mr. Andrews of the Crerar Library has invented a device which renders the storage and handling of electrotyped titles easy, and lessens one of the main difficulties of the scheme. It has been tried with over 30,000 titles, and works well. The day is perhaps coming when a librarian will order his printed catalogue cards as regularly as he orders his books, and more easily, for he will only have to write a number. Perhaps the day will come when the cards will be furnished by the publisher with the book.

The Association, though in favor of cheap book-postage for the use of the interlibrary loan, did not approve of the measure as at present proposed.

The next meeting will be somewhere in the Middle West. Mr. Carr, Treasurer for several years, and Secretary for the last two, is the new President.

Nearly three-quarters of the members took the post-conference trip to Quebec, and beyond to Tadousac and Chicoutimi, on the wild banks of the Saguenay. On the return, half a hundred stayed at Quebec to see the Corpus-Christi procession—a sight which, in that place, is a little journey to Europe. They admired the magnificence of the priests' vestments, the length of the procession in so small a city, the charming effect of the long double lines of girls in white veils, each conventual school arranged by age—the youngest, hardly four years of age, in front. They noted that the children's remarkable beauty was not to be seen in the older members of the procession, whether that the Canadian beauty is short-lived, or that the new generation is going to be more lovely than its predecessors, or that there is a natural selection, which drafts off the handsomer faces into domestic life. The Papal, Canadian, English, Irish, French, and American flags were here and there stretched across the street, and there were on the houses great red bands, with suitable inscriptions, "O Salutaris Hostia, Panis Angelorum," and the like. On the edge of the sidewalk all along the route were set lines of young pines and firs, thousands of which must have been sacrificed for the purpose. In two or three places arches were erected, covered with evergreens, whose sweet odor filled the air even at some distance. At these stations the four men paused who bore the canopy covering the priest with the Host; a score of choir-boys in beautiful blue robes scattered flowers; a dozen incense-boys swung their censers; the richly robed priests chanted in strident tones; and then the procession moved on. They returned along the same route, and dissolved with impressive ceremonies in the Basilica. The choir of the Jesuits' Church of Montreal, reputed the best in the city, had come to Quebec for the occasion. The lucky librarians returned on the same boat, and for half a day were pleased by a profusion of songs, solo and chorus, grave and gay, sung by rich, well-trained voices. From Montreal a fitting route home was offered to the Western librarians by the St. Lawrence and the great lakes; to the Eastern party by Lake Champlain and Lake George. F. L.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—I.

ITS ARCHITECTURE.

PARIS, June, 1900.

Everything is in the point of view, and your first impressions of Paris this summer will depend upon whether you have gone to amuse yourself in a world's fair, or to learn something from an international exhibition.

It was never so well realized as at the Paris show of 1889 that much might be taught by the buildings put up for the occasion, no less than by the exhibits they were designed to contain—that the moment might be made one of architectural as well as commercial and industrial display. The French, with their traditional sense of style, could not, even for a temporary purpose, lapse wholly into the vulgar or the discordant, and I remember being struck, eleven years ago, in the Champ de Mars, with a unity, a dignity, a symmetry, that certainly had not characterized the Philadelphia Centennial buildings in 1876. But Paris simply gave the hint which Chicago, without any artistic traditions whatever, elaborated and carried to complete achievement. It is an old story now, but one with such important results, one imposing such serious obligations by way of sequel, that it cannot be forgotten. For it meant, not only that, during a long summer, a white city, more beautiful than Claude's most beautiful dream, rose upon the shores of Lake Michigan; but also that a standard—and a high standard—was set for all similar enterprises. There is no doubt that the buildings were admirably adapted to the necessities of exhibition; but they were also an architectural triumph, more practically representative of the development of the architect's art in America than all the plans and elevations hung on any of the walls within. For this reason it is now impossible to go to Paris without remembering Chicago—impossible to visit the Exposition without looking upon the buildings and their arrangement as something more than a gay background for an international picnic. A chance has been given to the French architect in his turn, and the question is, What use has he made of it?

To approach the Exposition by the chief entrance, the Porte Monumentale, is to feel a very sharp pang of disappointment—to face discouragement at the start. It opens on the Place de la Concorde; there is no nobler square in all Europe, and, more likely than not, you have come to it along the Rue de Rivoli, which, with its arcades and fine sky line, is one of the stateliest streets in a city where stateliness is the rule. It is, therefore, the greater shock to find yourself opposite a cheap, tawdry, gimcrack structure, painted in the colors of the rainbow; a figure, like the decoration of a wedding-cake, set on top; the whole thing more ap-

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propriate to the circus ring than the meeting-place of the nations in the most important capital of the world. It is the more difficult to describe because, as the friends and admirers of M. René Binet, the architect, boast, it is built in an entirely new style. But there are qualities in architecture, as in painting and sculpture, more desirable than novelty, and he pays a heavy price for his too thorough originality. Three arches support a cupola and are flanked on either side by two tall columns; the whole of open work studded with hundreds of little electric lights, so that, even in the day, you can see that the problem of the architect was less beauty, or grace, or harmony of proportion than an effective scheme of illumination to startle the Parisian by night. M. Moreau-Vauthier's symbolic statue of Paris that crowns the cupola, and two other gigantic figures that stand under it, upholding great electric lights, are, at least, frivolous or commonplace enough to be in keeping. But, almost as if to emphasize the flimsiness of the design by contrast, two bas-reliefs, representing Labor, by M. Guillot, connect the arches with the columns, and are as hopelessly out of place as the work of M. Meunier, of whom M. Guillot is evidently a disciple, would be in a music hall or a side show at the circus. The arrangement of turnstiles to admit a vast crowd may be ingenuity itself, but, architecturally and pictorially, the French are the first to admit that the Gate is a failure.

It is wiser, really, to get your first impression from the Champs-Élysées entrance, where there is no attempt at architecture. But while the Porte Monumentale opens only into alleys of horse chestnuts, here you have before you a vista in some ways not unworthy of Paris, the city of vistas. In front, the new Avenue Nicolas II. leads, between the Grand and the Petit Palais des Beaux-Arts to the new Pont Alexandre III., and then across the Esplanade des Invalides to the Invalides itself, severe and solemn with the greater reticence of another age and the memories of the intervening years. The two palaces, the avenue, and the bridge are to remain, and, with their characteristic respect for the permanent, the French architects have treated these features of the Exposition in a more serious spirit. The palaces are by far the best designed and most impressive of all the buildings. The Petit Palais, which now contains the Retrospective collection, and later will become a museum of decorative and industrial art, is the more satisfactory of the two. In both, due regard is shown for the present pseudo-classic ideals of French architecture. But M. Girault, the architect of the smaller palace, has understood the advantage of restraint. The central doorway, a huge arch rising above the line of the building, is rather florid, but elsewhere the decorations are comparatively simple and harmonious. It is another matter with the Grand Palais of MM. Thomas, Louvet, and Deglane. Here statues sprawl wherever there is room for sprawling; the walls within the colonnades are ornamented with M. Fournier's frieze, appropriate in subject (the Great Periods of Art), but, in feeling and style, wholly inconsistent with the architecture. Throughout there is an overloading of detail, an excess of ornament especially irritating in a building whose chief motive calls for reserve and repose. On the other hand, the success with which the palace has been planned to fill an irregular space, and yet present a symmetrical front, not only to the Avenue Nicolas II., but also to the Avenue d'Antin, is little short of marvellous. The bridge, the work of M. Cassien-Bernard and G. Cousin, is also good—frankly the engineer's feat that bridge-building resolves itself into nowadays; the architectural ornament not overdone, even if here there is one point curious to note. Though a serious defect in so much of the sculpture exhibited is felt to be the disproportionate size of the base to the statue, so that, in the case of an equestrian group, the horse is usually galloping off into space, the two columns at each end of the bridge are unnecessarily big for the allegorical figures that surmount them. However, the general effect is not unpleasant. But, when you cross the bridge, what is to be said of the two big industrial art palaces that face each other across the wide avenue? What are they but stucco gone mad? Chicago has suggested for all the larger buildings white as the prevailing color, though often it is needlessly broken by touches or spaces or bars of pale yellow or other tints. And in these two palaces every spare surface, every corner, every line is disfigured and tortured by ornament—a very frenzy of ornament. It may be infinitely dexterous in detail—I do not deny it. And, indeed, I know of no country where, for the mere ordering, frescoes could be produced as effective and skilful, without being absolutely great, as those painted by the modern French artists on the façade of either building—or, for that matter, on the countless buildings in the grounds, down to the most unpretending theatre for children. But the result of the whole in the Industrial Art palaces is an extravagance, a flamboyancy, that bewilders and fatigues the eye. It has none of the naïveté that amuses one in the absurd rococo of, for instance, the famous bridge at Prague. It is self-conscious, deliberate; you are oppressed by the effort, the agonizing effort, of it all. And the two staring white edifices, with their frescoes and arcades and endless wreaths and arabesques and flourishes of stucco, seem only the more tawdry and frivolous, framing in, as they do, the solemn old gray building with its golden dome. A wonderful opportunity has been lost. The Invalides might have suggested an arrangement that would have surpassed Chicago, even as Chicago eclipsed all previous exhibitions. But, instead, you have a sensationalism, a caprice, reminding you at every turn that the exhibition, if intended to serve, on the one hand, as an educational factor, is, on the other, merely an exaggerated development of the country fair.

As every one now knows, this end of the Exposition grounds is joined to the Champ de Mars and the Trocadéro by two narrow strips along the river-front. At the Champ de Mars, again, was a fine chance for a vista. Gardens and avenues, connected by the Pont d'Iéna and interrupted only by the Eiffel Tower, stretch from the old Palais du Trocadéro to the new Château d'Eau with the great Palais de l'Électricité and Salle des Fêtes behind it. On the Champ-de-Mars side of the river, however, all these huge palaces—of Education, of Costume, of Womanhood, of Mines and Metallurgy, of Textile Fabrics, and who can say of how many other things?—are only less ornate than the two long outbreaks of stucco leading to the Invalides. The general plan, the same as in 1889, is excellent; the details are distressing; and the giant arches of the Eiffel Tower put everything else out of scale. On the Trocadéro side, if the vista were shut in by the river, less fault could be found, for, from the high steps there spread out before you the bare white walls and low domes of the Colonial section—Algerian streets, Moorish bazaars, and so on—that, in the imitation, preserve something of the impressive simplicity of the East. But there, beyond the bridge, the huge tower breaks in rudely upon the composition without adding any compensating beauty, except in the evening, perhaps, when, in long rhythmical lines of light, it springs upward into the dark, though the illuminations, when I saw them, could not bring the whole picture together any better by night than by day.

Chicago, no doubt, also suggested the use to be made of the river front, but I am not sure that it is not just here that the Exposition is most disappointing. One or two long white buildings—the Palace of Navigation, the Palace of Forestry, Hunting and Fishing—border the Seine on the southern bank, and they are among the simplest and quietest of all. But they appear to find themselves there by haphazard, rather than to have been placed, like the memorable group in Chicago, as part of a great architectural scheme. They are jostled at either end by pavilions and houses that have no architectural relation to them, they are overtowered by others as irrelevant. Even the bridges do not lead up to them with any distinction. Above, on the same side, is the row of Pavilions of the Nations. A few are really fine, especially the Italian, for to Italy was granted not only more space but quite the best site. It stands first as you look down the river from the Pont Alexandre III., and there is nothing to interfere with the effect of its stately proportions and golden domes. But it is followed by such a jumble, such a heterogeneous mess of architecture, such an absurd medley of German gables, and English mullioned windows, and Hungarian castellated towers, and I hardly know what, that the only definite impression you bring away from the confusion, if you happen to be an American, is one of honest shame that your country should be so shabbily represented. While every other nation, big or little, has taken some pride in putting up a building worthy of its history, or traditions, or present prosperity, the stars and stripes float from an insignificant, undignified structure that looks like nothing so much as the Mausoleum of American Art it has already been called. After Chicago, this architectural disgrace seems all the more unpardonable. On the opposite banks of the river, the Palace, which is a discredit to the city of Paris, is followed by the horticultural buildings, and then by M. Robida's "Vieux Paris," which, however clever as make-believe viewed from within, from without sets one to wondering if, after all, modern Paris, with its quays and shady groves and here and there a palace like the Louvre, is not nobler and more pictorial than the mediæval capital it has replaced. As I stood on the new bridge of Alexandre III., I thought the view up the river toward Paris, untouched—for, from this point, you cannot see the brand-new Gare d'Orléans and the treeless quays be-

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yond—must leave one thankful that the world's combined efforts to achieve beauty are doomed to perish with the year.

If I criticise, it is because, as I have said, the miracle on Lake Michigan led one to hope for the coming of the architectural millennium, and where should one expect it but in Paris? I understand the difficulties that confronted the French architect. I grant that in no other city in Europe or America could so much have been made out of such a piecemeal enclosure—and this, too, in the very heart, be it remembered, of a busy and crowded capital. But the disposal of the buildings is one thing, their architecture quite another; and my complaint is that in almost every case the architecture has ruined a general plan which is really admirable considering the special circumstances. The American architect in Chicago, it is said, succeeded by frankly copying old models; with him there was no endeavor to originate, to create. The French architect, on the contrary, has seized with delight upon the opportunity presented by buildings that are to be pulled down as quickly as they were put up, to experiment, to venture upon entirely novel and original departures. Besides, his standpoint is altogether different. He, at least, never forgets that the Exposition, whatever else it may or may not be, is a world's fair, and gayety is his principal object. But there can be unity even in experiment, and gayety can be obtained by more legitimate means than a debauch of stucco. As you wander from big building to big building, you begin to believe there is something in Ruskin's definition of architecture as "the art which so disposes and adorns the edifices raised by man *for whatever uses* that the sight of them contributes to his mental health, power, and pleasure." It is a relief to leave the colossal palaces, upon which so much energy has been misspent, for some of the smaller foreign pavilions, or an occasional building like that in which the P. and O. Steamship Company have their offices, where the architect has relied for his effect solely upon a good design and appropriate decoration.

It seems as if with the French architect, as with the French painter and sculptor, the more deliberately he strives after originality, the more persistently it eludes him. Like the painter and the sculptor, he is thorough master of his trade. He is always an accomplished craftsman. There are some things that he (and let me class with him the French engineer as well) can do better than most other men. Look at the new bridge and the new avenue so nobly completed by the Invalides; look at the stairway, with its curving flights, in the Grand Palais des Beaux-Arts; at the spring and arching of the roof in the great Salle des Fêtes. These are marvels that prove his knowledge and his skill. But the creative, the highest power of all, is, for the time, at any rate, beyond his reach. The study of the architecture of the Exposition is interesting because it explains both his merits and his shortcomings as clearly as the collections in the buildings of his designing show the present condition of the other arts in France. It is a fact, not easily to be denied, that while the perfect craftsman is found everywhere, the creator or genius at the century's end is rare in any art. N. N.

CHUQUET'S ALSACE IN 1814.

PARIS, June 14, 1900.

'L'Alsace en 1814' is the new volume added by M. Arthur Chuquet to the already large series of volumes which he publishes under the general title of "The Wars of the Revolution." It is, in fact, a separate subject, as the volumes of the "Wars of the Revolution" extend only from the first Prussian invasion to the struggle for Alsace, Valenciennes, and Hondschoote. M. Chuquet jumps over a long period to arrive at 1814, and deals with a subject which belongs to the Empire; but the Empire may well be considered as a continuation of the Revolution. The personality of Napoleon is such that the historian passes lightly over incidents in which he took no prominent part. The campaign of 1814 is well known; never did Napoleon show more military genius; never did he use with more boldness and skill the resources which were still at his disposal. The interest of M. Chuquet's book is almost independent of Napoleon. Alsace was a lateral field, so to speak, in the great struggle which took place; but it was not an unimportant field. M. Chuquet gives us very curious and interesting details regarding the situation in Alsace at the end of 1813; the campaign of Victor, the siege of the fortified places, and the conduct of their governors; the attitude of their garrisons towards the Bourbons; the siege of Huningue, which he pronounces to have been more heroic in 1814 than it was afterwards in 1815 (this siége was chosen as the subject of one of the finest pictures of Detaille, our great war painter. He represents the coming out of the garrison after the capitulation). Though Phalsbourg and Bitche really belong to Lorraine, these two fortified posts are so near Alsace that M. Chuquet has given a place to their defence in his book, thus adding not inglorious pages to the history of the resistance which France offered in 1814 to the invasion of its territory by the Allies.

The numerical inferiority of the French armies in the campaign of 1814 was such that the Allies, said Ney, could have reached Paris in a few days if they had dared to do so. For a campaign in which Napoleon showed himself more audacious than ever, he had, to confront the deep columns of the Allies, a thin line of battle. He filled his regiments with conscripts, 120,000 of whom belonged to the class or annual levy of 1814 and to the anterior classes, and 160,000 were called in advance from the class of 1815. Napoleon had no idea that the Allies would attack him by way of Alsace. "It would be madness," said he. In his opinion the Allies would attack by way of Belgium. He thought that Alsace could be sufficiently protected by national guards; he left little artillery in Strasbourg, and sent all the guns he could to Metz and to Lille. He gave orders, however, that the national guards of Alsace should form legions for active service and belong to the regular army.

The sentiments of the Alsatians were not doubtful. Alsace, still German in language, as in its popular habits, was intensely French in feeling. The fusion with France dated from the Revolution. "After 1789," says M. Chuquet, "she united her destinies to those of France. . . . Her children fought under the French flag for the triumph of liberty and equality, they signed the treaty of alliance with their blood. Alsace was proud of being a part of the *grande nation*, and its vanguard." An Alsatian poet, Hartmann, says, "The triumphal crown of the French armies bears many gems which were conquered by Alsatian hands," and he cites Kléber, Lefebvre, Kellermann, Rapp, Walther, Berchheim, Schaal, Beurmann, Schramm. "Our valley has produced many a hero, from the head of the army to the corporal." In a report written after the return of the Bourbons, the Chevalier de la Salle, royal commissioner, writes in 1815, "This province is as French as the oldest provinces of the monarchy." After the disasters of 1812, Strasbourg and all the Alsatian cities equipped at their own expense a force of cavalry and guards of honor. Ministers, generals, prefects showed the greatest activity in their efforts to prepare the means of resistance in Alsace; the fortified places all made ready for a siege. Blücher and Gneisenau were in favor of a prompt offensive; they wished to cross the Rhine, and to push on directly to Paris, by way of Metz and Verdun. Schwarzenberg was more calm and methodical; he felt a sort of fear of entering the territory of France. He wished at any rate to be well supported on all sides. He wanted to occupy Switzerland before beginning an offensive campaign; in his eyes it would have been an unpardonable sin not to do so. To enter France through Switzerland was the way to turn the fortresses of the Rhine. Radetzky, his chief of staff, defended his opinions, as Gneisenau defended the theory of Blücher; he considered the strategical line of offence of the Allies to extend from Holland to Switzerland, and looked upon Switzerland as the key to France. The Tsar objected that Switzerland was neutral, but had not Switzerland already sent some regiments to France? Finally, it was agreed that an army of the North, under the orders or Bernadotte, should enter Holland; that Blücher's army, called the Silesian army, should cross the Rhine between Mainz and Ehrenbreitstein; that Schwarzenberg's, or the Bohemian army or grand army, should cross the Rhine at Bâle, Lauterburg, and Schaffhausen, and advance towards Neuchâtel and Langres. The two armies of Silesia and Bohemia were to concentrate on the plateau of Langres, a very important position, as the point from which flow three rivers towards three different seas.

Schwarzenberg developed his front over an enormous area, in this not following the strategy of Napoleon, who was always in favor of rapid concentration. He lost in reality much time. He entered the Swiss territory on the 21st of December, the federal troops offering no resistance. The grand army crossed the Rhine at Bâle, and the sacred territory, as Napoleon called the French territory, was immediately invaded. Wrede entered Alsace with five divisions, three Bavarian and two Austrian. He had to watch Belfort and the valley of the Rhine. On the 22d of December he invested Huningue, sent one division towards Belfort, another towards Porrentruy. The Allies, said Rechberg, the commander of this division, wished only for peace; it was very painful for him who, a year before, was in the grand army of Napoleon, and who had had his feet frozen in Russia, to appear now as the enemy of France and

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of the Emperor. This did not prevent him from making enormous requisitions.

The allied forces easily seized the castle of Blamont, sixty kilometres from Besançon, the only fortified place between Belfort and the fort of Joux; as well as Landskron, which is near Huningue, on the summit of the Blauen, one of the last ramifications of the Jura. The French had the advantage in two engagements fought at Sainte-Croix, a large village on the road between Bâle and Colmar, at a short distance from Colmar. Victor, Duke of Belluna, who was charged with the defence in the east of France, expected to be reinforced by Marmont, Duke of Ragusa, and thus to be able to turn Wrede out of Alsace. But the Tsar was at Rastadt, with a corps of 40,000 men, and on the point of crossing the Rhine. He crossed it only on the 13th of January, as he wished that the crossing should take place on the first day of the Russian year. The arrival of the Russians changed the situation. Wittgenstein took Fort Vauban, the former Fort Louis, seven leagues from Strasbourg, on an island of the Rhine, and almost defenceless. The French fell back on the Vosges. Ségur was in the rear guard; on the 4th of January he entered Reichshoffen, a name which received in 1870 a terrible notoriety. He marched on Saverne, and crossed the Vosges in the night of the 6th of January. He was accompanied to the end by brave Alsatians, who formed for him a guard of honor. "My regiment," he wrote in his report, "marches well, and takes good care of itself; I have not left a man behind me in nine days."

Marshal Victor retreated on Raon-l'Étape and Baccarat by the Celles valley. He was followed up by the Russians, and had to go to Lunéville. The retreat had fairly begun, and the allied armies in Alsace and Lorraine had nothing to do but to make sieges. Even the passes of the Vosges were not defended. In vain did Napoleon send orders for the organization of new divisions in Alsace; at the very time he was dictating them, the Allies were massing their forces before Colmar, and Victor was in full retreat. The anger of Napoleon fell upon him. He may perhaps have retarded the movements of the enemy, but his old audacity was gone; he was discouraged and fatigued. He had only 18,000 men in hand, and with such a force, how could he defend Alsace and the line of the Vosges against overwhelming and constantly increasing armies?

The close of M. Chuquet's interesting volume is full of details concerning the occupation of Alsace by the Allies, and their operations against the fortresses, which, one by one, fell into their hands. The new administration of Alsace by military governors was a series of requisitions. M. Chuquet cites a place, named Blotzheim, which was one of the *étapes* on the military road from Bâle to Troyes, and which, from the 22d of December, 1813, to the 29th of June, 1814, had to lodge 63,807 officers, to receive 32,620 horses, and eleven headquarters. The people of Alsace were kept in absolute ignorance of the operations of the campaign which was fought on the other side of the Vosges. They hoped at times that Napoleon would suddenly make his appearance, and succeed in cutting the communications of the Allies in the east. The little garrisons left in the fortresses were yet more ignorant than the population of the plains; even after the abdication of Napoleon and the restoration of the Bourbons, the governors of some fortresses refused to capitulate and to obey any orders but those of the legal government. The story of these small sieges is a very honorable page in the annals of Alsace. The resistance of the fortresses of Brisach, Huningue, Belfort, Landau, etc., was carried as far as it possibly could be under the most unfavorable circumstances.

Correspondence.

CHARLESTON AND PORT ROYAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to Mr. J. C. Hemphill's letter in the *Nation* of June 7, permit us to say that any of your readers who may happen to be in Charleston, and at the same time to be impelled by a sense of curiosity to wend his way through the quiet streets to the generally empty wharves of the city, will be able to count all foreign-going vessels on the fingers of his left hand. For this decadence of its commerce reference is made to the official report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., for 1899, page 1546, from which it appears that the number of vessels cleared in 1878 for foreign ports was 483, and that this number has dwindled from year to year until in 1898 the number was reduced to 86.

Gazing towards the east, the stranger will discern in the distance a very small island, Castle Pinckney, devoid of vegetation, even so much as a tree whereunder to seek a grateful shade from the sun's rays in this semi-tropical clime. Partly surrounded by marsh, barren, uninviting, and repellent, is this spot which the people of Charleston are desirous that the Government should occupy as a sanatorium.

From the same vantage-ground, gazing towards the south, the line of the jetties is discernible. These, with other improvements to the harbor of Charleston, have, according to the report of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., for 1899, page 1543, cost the Government, up to June 30, 1899, $4,037,256.70. Major Ruffner of the Engineer Corps estimates that it would require an additional $2,408,552 (vide report as above, p. 1551) to secure a channel depth of twenty-six feet at low water from Charleston to the ocean. The non-utility of this harbor, notwithstanding this great expenditure, was made evident during the Spanish war, when the transport *Yale* and cruiser *Columbia* were ordered to Charleston to embark troops for Cuba. Not being able to enter the harbor, these vessels had to lie at sea, and the troops to be sent on board in barges (*vide* annual report for 1889 of the Chief of Engineers, U. S. A., page 1550).

To the north across the river will be observed a stretch of land extending along the eastern shore, and should the stranger's curiosity prompt an inquiry, a truthful person would inform him that during the malarial or summer season few, if any, white people can live in that neighborhood. This is the location where the Charleston people want a navy yard established in place of the health-giving locality of Port Royal.

But the real question at issue is, as to whether the naval station at Port Royal should or should not be practically abandoned and removed from a superior to a much inferior port, like that of Charleston? In denying the wisdom of such a removal we make the following assertions, as of well-known facts: That the dry dock at Port Royal is the most valuable timber dock on the Atlantic Coast; that it is commodious enough to hold safely the largest vessel in our navy; that in proof thereof the *Indiana*, one of our largest battle-ships, was successfully docked at Port Royal, without a mishap; that no structural weakness has developed in the dock since it was built; that the foundation of the dock is unusually firm and solid, as shown by a recent test of a pressure of 200 tons to 140 superficial feet with a depression of but three-sixteenths of an inch; that the dry dock was built at a less expense to the Government than any other dock erected by it; that the average yearly expenditures for repairs have been less than on any other dock on the Atlantic Coast; that it is in condition to-day to dock successfully the largest vessel in our navy; that the recently built brick and steel shops, with their complement of modern machinery, are capable of making all ordinary repairs to men-of-war; that the officers' quarters are commodious, as are the barracks and hospitals which make up the marines' quarters, and that the administration building, the store-houses, paint-house, coal sheds, electric light and water plants, wharves, roadways, etc., which go toward making up this plant are answering the purpose for which they were intended.

Finally, as regards the harbor of Port Royal, it is superior to any and all on the South Atlantic and Gulf Coasts. There can be no comparison between this royal harbor, within whose confines the whole of the American navy can safely lie at anchor, and the artificial harbor at Charleston. The one is nature's handiwork, and is to-day as it was 340 years ago, when Capt. Ribault first entered it; the other, in a great measure, the handiwork of man, with the aid of dredges and scows, and the yearly raid upon the national Treasury in order to preserve this year the work that was accomplished the previous year.

We contend that, under these circumstances, it would be a crime to transfer the present naval station from Port Royal to Charleston—a crime as involving raids upon the Treasury, as involving a blow at the national defence; a crime against the nation and against posterity.

BEAUFORT NAVAL STATION COMMITTEE.

BEAUFORT, S. C., June 19, 1900.

[We cannot publish any more letters on this subject.—ED. NATION.]

ONLY ONE ISSUE IN KENTUCKY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am pretty well in touch with the anti-Goebel party of Kentucky, which comprises, almost without exception, every decent man in the State, whether Democrat or Republican; and I can assure you that "we" are fully satisfied with Gov. Taylor's unwillingness to make himself a martyr and to rot in jail, and we are thankful to Gov. Mount for not delivering him up to his enemies. His act may be revolutionary and a bad precedent, but let us hope that the infamous action of the Goebelites, in first turning the Governor elected by the people out of office, without even the pretence that

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he was not elected, and then prosecuting him for murder on trumped-up charges before a packed grand jury (the action which led to Gov. Mount's righteous if unlawful refusal), will not become a precedent for traitors against right and justice in other States.

The Legislature which met in January had a Goebelite majority in both branches. How was it obtained? The tools of the arch-conspirators, though restrained by the fear of the lamppost from throwing out whole Republican counties, cleverly overlooked a few precincts here and there, and refused to count a few informal ballots elsewhere, and thus stole a Senatorship and three seats in the House; and, still finding himself one vote short in the Senate, Mr. Goebel bought it for cash and an office. The Legislature thus constituted unseated Taylor.

The people of Kentucky know of no other issue in this year 1900 than that of righting this wrong. We care nothing for Filipinos or Boers, nothing for tariff or currency, for Expansion or Trusts; we want to restore freedom in our own commonwealth by piling up so big a Republican majority for Governor in November that the three ballot-stealers at Frankfort will not dare to disregard it. If you cannot help us in this matter, Mr. Editor, please stand aloof.

Truly yours, LEWIS N. DEMBITZ.

LOUISVILLE, KY., June 24, 1900.

IZAAK WALTON'S ANGLER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I shall be much obliged if you will allow me to ask, through your columns, for reports of perfect or imperfect copies of the first edition of the 'Compleat Angler' (1653).

Yours, faithfully, R. B. MARSTON.

ST. DUNSTAN'S HOUSE, FETTER LANE, LONDON, E. C., June 15, 1900.

'TOMMY AND GRIZEL.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Is there any way of putting a tourniquet on an author to prevent his bleeding to death in a serial? Surely Mr. Barrie needs such treatment in the case of 'Tommy and Grizel.' Sentimental Tommy has from the start been to many of us a disagreeably sappy youngster—a kind of Scotch Little Lord Fauntleroy, in tartans and unbreeched. But we used to fancy that Mr. Barrie had "caught him young enough" to make something worth while out of him. 'Tommy and Grizel' has destroyed any such vain expectations. Moreover, it has also destroyed the fond illusions of the really ardent admirers of Tommy, who used to fancy that Tommy was Mr. Barrie himself in his prehistoric periods. No reader of 'Tommy and Grizel' can hold to this theory; for we all know that Mr. Barrie is a sweet and healthy and simple-minded Scotchman, whereas Tommy is fast becoming a monster of sappy self-consciousness, priggishness, and poltroonery, whose only "finish" should be a sanitarium. Every one remembers Oliver Wendell Holmes's asylum for decayed punsters. Let us have as well an asylum for used-up characters in fiction, and let Mr. Barrie be urged to commit Tommy to it promptly. Nobody doubts that Mr. Barrie has a very pretty genius for sentimental garrulity; he is a kind of nineteenth-century Sterne, warranted safe for misses in their teens. Can't he be persuaded to put an end to Tommy in three chapters and an epilogue, and then to turn back to his 'Auld Licht Idylls' or 'When a Man's Single'? As for Grizel, doubtless she was studied from life and Mr. Barrie has already married her; at any rate, the naïve reader may be permitted to hope so.—Yours very truly,

LEWIS E. GATES.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., June 21, 1900.

Notes.

'Familiar Fish, their Habits and Capture,' about to be brought out by D. Appleton & Co., will have an introduction supplied by President Jordan of Leland Stanford Junior University.

A. S. Barnes & Co. will shortly publish a biography of Joel Dorman Steele, the well-known teacher and text-book maker, composed by Mrs. George Archibald.

A reprint of Mrs. Gaskell's 'Life of Charlotte Brontë' is not out of place in the "Haworth Edition" of the "Life and Works of the Sisters Brontë" (Harpers). This is the more evident when one considers the number of letters and conversations (principally Charlotte's) which this memoir contains. In the present edition, material of the sort is sensibly increased by Mr. Clement K. Shorter's notes, who, for this volume, supplants Mrs. Humphry Ward as editor. It cannot be said, however, that his annotations add much except in the way of biographical and chronological accuracy, though some of Charlotte's letters to her publisher are both new and interesting. But Mr. Shorter had, of course, already exhausted the main interest of his special Brontë studies in 'Charlotte Brontë and her Circle.' He himself modestly explains his present function as that of simply introducing afresh a charming biography, which remains, after all that minute research has since discovered, its own excuse for being.

A revised edition of Captain Eardley-Wilmot's book, 'The Development of Navies during the Last Half-Century,' reviewed in these columns, has been imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, and is now entitled 'Our Fleet To-day, and Its Development during the Last Half-Century.' The changes are mainly the elimination of the chapters on foreign navies contained in the previous publication, thus confining the scope to a description of the British Navy as it is, and adding a chapter upon the lessons of recent naval wars. Of course our late Spanish war occupies a large part of this chapter, and the author seems to have a just idea of what was done, and where the merit especially might be found. Unlike those who of late seem to desire to depreciate the victor and victory at Manila Bay, he remarks with good judgment that it was for the operations preceding this fight that Dewey should receive the highest commendation. The entry into Manila Bay, with its boldness in conception and promptness of execution and personal leadership, is what stamps the Admiral's greatness. As to the defects in the naval campaign in the West Indies, the author does well to call attention to the fact that successful war at sea, as on land, depends much on efficient scouting, and this cannot be achieved without adequate numbers. This little volume has been improved by revision, and will be found to be a good handbook of the British Navy.

A life of 'Stephen Decatur' appears as one of the handy Beacon Biographies of Eminent Americans published by Small, Maynard & Co. of Boston. It is by the Rev. Cyrus Townsend Brady, a clergyman who is a graduate of the Naval Academy at Annapolis, and, previous to his taking orders in the church, served in the navy. It is consequently not wholly strange to find that Mr. Brady has produced an excellent memoir of the American seaman who, ranking with Paul Jones and Farragut, is distinguished from both of these naval heroes by being more characteristically American in birth and lineage than Farragut, while Paul Jones's career touched America as one only of several countries under whose flag he served. Decatur is to our mind more nearly the Nelson of the navy of the United States than any other officer, and, while superior in personal character to Nelson, he certainly lacked none of his personal bravery and professional skill as a ship commander. Denied the opportunity afforded Nelson as a fleet commander and strategist, the comparison cannot be carried further. We can cordially commend the little volume to those who wish to refresh their memories, or to make an immediate acquaintance with a man who gave us a high standard of what an officer of the navy of the United States should be in peace and war.

Mr. Bernard Bosanquet's 'Education of the Young in Plato's Republic' (Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press; New York: Macmillan) is a translation of the greater part of the second and of the whole of the third and fourth books of Plato's immortal dialogue, with an introductory essay on Greek education and a considerable number of simple and helpful footnotes. It is a gallant attempt to render the reforming wisdom of the Athenian aristocrat acceptable and intelligible to a modern democracy, and as such is deserving of all success, even though we may feel that the educational ideal which seemed best for a leisured class dedicated solely to war and politics, and never destined to be industrially productive, requires to be materially modified in the case of those who have to learn how to make their living under the complex conditions of modern society.

The series of "Oxford Classical Texts" now issuing from the Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), can hardly receive too high praise; except for the price, the volumes may be called luxurious. The typography, paper, and margins leave practically nothing to be desired; the various readings and emendations are conveniently placed at the foot of the page. They are edited by scholars of distinction, and of special study and fitness in the work each has undertaken. The latest additions to the Greek texts are Æschylus by Sidgwick, the 'Argonautica' of Apollonius Rhodius by Seaton, and a first volume of Aristophanes by F. W. Hall and W. M. Geldart. The first volume issued of the works of Xenophon is the 'Hellenica,' by E. C. Marchant. Simultaneously appears as a companion to this text 'A Commentary on the Hellenica of Xenophon,' by C. E. Underhill, which discusses minutely points of chronology and history, as well as the curious problem of the origin of the work, and the source of its inconsistencies and inequalities.

Eveleen Harrison's 'Home Nursing; Modern Scientific Methods for the Care of the Sick' (Macmillan), gives in a condensed, clear, and readable form suggestions which

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in the main are excellent for the purpose designated. It seems to have been written by one who has herself had good training as a nurse; and for those to whom it is addressed—namely, such persons as are beyond the reach of the daily visit from a good physician—the advice given is wholesome and helpful. The objection to the book is one which it shares in common with all treatises on household medicine, that at times it trenches too far on the province of the doctor, making statements which might lead the patient now and then to avoid sending for the medical attendant at a time when the responsibility should be in his hands only.

The remarkable function assigned in August, 1373, by the Signoria of Florence to Boccaccio, of public lecturer on Dante, bore fruit, as is well known, in the commentary which was cut short at the 17th canto of the "Inferno" by Boccaccio's death in January, 1374. Along with its preëminent merits this commentary had the usual characteristic of its class, prolixity and discursiveness. It has occurred to Prof. O. Zenatti to extract from the mass narratives, lively anecdote, descriptions of persons and places, moral considerations, and like matter of permanent worth and interest. Hence a not large volume, 'Giovanni Boccaccio: Dal Commento sopra la Commedia di Dante: Letture Scelte' (Rome: Dante Publishing Society). This pious labor is commended as a manual of school reading.

The 'Anatolische Landwirthschaft,' by Richard Herrmann (Leipzig: Grunow), is a book quite out of the ordinary in the multitude of Oriental works of the present day. It treats, not of the past, but rather of the present and the future possibilities of Anatolia. The author, formerly a professor in the Agricultural College in Bonn, has for six years been the "Kulturinspector" of the Anatolian Railroad, with the special purpose of investigating the economic and agricultural condition of the territory opened up by this new enterprise; his mission including also the instruction of the Turkish farmers in better methods and manners. His report of what he saw and accomplished is very favorable; he believes the Turks will be apt pupils, should agricultural colonies from Europe take possession of this farming land.

'La Grèce Antique: Entretiens sur les Origines et les Croyances,' by André Lefèvre (Paris: Schleicher Frères), is an appreciative study of the early ages of Greek development. Attention is directed primarily to Homer and Hesiod, and in connection with the former an interesting section describes the various manuscripts and palimpsests of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey.' The tone of the book is conversational, and the spirit of the Homeric poems is entered into with especial enthusiasm and affection. Unfortunately, much space is taken up in establishing the origin and nature of the several deities, and a great deal of ingenuity is expended on philological and symbolical explanations of myths. This is dangerous and uncertain ground. Prof. Lefèvre also finds many interesting suggestions of relationship between the Hellenic and the Hindu, Assyrian, and Egyptian divinities. He is a great admirer of the Homeric religion, with its quiet fatalism and simple resignation. "These are very rare moments in history—these periods of accord between religions and that complex of experience and prejudices called common sense." The work is the more interesting because of its apt and spirited renderings of representative passages in Homer and Hesiod.

It is announced that the *Popular Science Monthly*, established by the Appletons in 1872, has passed into the hands of McClure, Phillips & Co., under the conduct of Prof. James McKeen Cattell of Columbia University, also editor of *Science*.

In the April number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston) will be found a clear photoprint of the John Robinson tablet set nine years ago in the front wall of St. Peter's, the Lutheran Cathedral Church of Leyden; with some account of the dedication exercises. In the same number, under the heading "The *Mayflower* Genealogies," Mr. George Ernest Bowman gives an alphabetic exhibition of the "vital statistics of the *Mayflower* passengers." The authority for each particular of parentage, birth, marriage and death is reserved for the family genealogies to which this list serves as a prodrome.

Prof. W. Dilthey of the University of Berlin contributes to the June *Rundschau* a first article on the Berlin Academy, "Die Berliner Akademie der Wissenschaften, ihre Vergangenheit und ihre gegenwärtigen Aufgaben." Coming fresh from the reading of Harnack's recent monumental history of the Academy, the writer is prompted to arrange his comments and his own thoughts on the subject in the form of an historical retrospect. He describes the birth of the institution through the plannings and activity of Leibnitz—to whom the greater and most interesting part of the essay is devoted—and leaves himself little space for an account of its wretched existence under the first two Prussian kings. But one almost wonders at Professor Dilthey's courage in recalling even the few revolting instances of the humiliation to which the so-called Academy was subjected by the brutality of Frederick William the First.

Two articles in *Hochschul-Nachrichten* for May relate to phases of the strife between the different types of educational institutions in Germany—a matter of more than local interest in view of the changing social conditions which are at the bottom of it. In the first, Prof. Klein, the mathematician of Göttingen, defends himself against Professor Slaby of Charlottenburg, who, for the first time, represents the technical high schools in the Prussian Herrenhaus, and there accused Professor Klein of transgressing his functions as university professor to the prejudice of the technical schools. The second is from the pen of Oberbürgermeister Dr. Adickes of Frankfurt, who justifies the demand for the admission of graduates from the Realgymnasia to the legal career. Both these men are in accord with the past in their respect for knowledge and culture for their own sakes, the one being distinguished in pure mathematics, the other as a highly cultured jurist; both, on the other hand, are *new* men in that they believe that adaptation to the practical wants of humanity cannot derogate from the dignity of any man, science, or institution.

The University of Birmingham, which received its charter of incorporation on the last day of May, differs in some important respects from the other English universities. The most striking innovation is the attempt to grapple with the problem of commercial education by placing side by side with the faculties of Science, Arts, and Medicine a Faculty of Commerce. With the view of preventing the University from degenerating into a mere teaching and examining machine, provision is made in the charter that it "shall further the provision of original research in all its branches." Another provision, which bears a truly mediæval character, is that by which the "Guild of Undergraduates" will elect three members to the supreme governing body. Power is given to admit women to the medical as to the other faculties, and to seats on the governing bodies.

The annual report of Mr. W. E. Foster of the Providence Public Library gives in the appendices the usual careful analysis of the library work for the past year. It is significant of the trend of public interest that the class of books having the largest number of accessions was social science. Attention is directed to the need of a more liberal financial support on the part of the city, now that the new building removes many of the restrictions which heretofore have hampered the library's work and impaired its usefulness. An interesting feature of this work, not mentioned in the report, is that in connection with the children and the schools. There is provided, not only a children's reading-room, but an apartment designed for the use of school-teachers and their classes for the study of special subjects. Here, on a day's notice being given, a teacher desirous of instructing her class on some topic, as in art, history, or geography, will find the library's collection of books on this subject. This is perhaps the most advanced development of the coöperation of the library and school, first publicly advocated in this country, if we are not mistaken, nearly twenty-five years ago at Quincy, Mass., by Charles Francis Adams, the younger.

—Among the cadets just graduated at West Point, Pillsbury, born in Massachusetts, stood highest in class rank—and he is the only native of that State who has gained that honor since 1879. His name has appeared in countless newspapers, and in the Army Register will fill the first line of the page which forms its terse chronicle year by year of distinguished cadets. The provenance of each individual cadet who has been thus first among the foremost in each former year becomes a matter of special interest because West Point is, beyond all other institutions, characteristic of our nationality, having from the outset had a proportional representation from every State. The origin, however, of those cadets who were preëminent in early classes is not now ascertainable. Graduates were sent forth in 1802 and onward, but no class rank was established till 1818. In that year Delafield, of New York birth, was the first recorded leader of the five most distinguished cadets. Within the sixteen previous years one hundred and seventy-nine cadets had graduated, but not one of them was officially graded. In Gen. Cullum's three heavy biographical tomes of West Pointers, the birthplaces of the seventy-three foremost cadets from 1818 to 1890, inclusive of both, are indicated, but no two of these places are set down together, or so that they can be detected and coördinated without something of research; yet in gathering them up and classifying them, we reach results that pay for our pains, being surprising and puzzling as well.

—The Army Register during most years

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of the last decade does not tell where the most distinguished cadets were born, but only the State from which they were appointed. We will, however, piece out its imperfections in this particular from the annual catalogues of the Military Academy itself. Thus our résumé will proceed throughout on the same basis with that of Gen. Cullum regarding all previous periods. A census drawn up according to States from which cadets were appointed would differ considerably from one made according to birth-States. Thus, no cadet appointed from Illinois has ever stood at the head of his class, but one born there and appointed from Washington was the first winner of that laurel for that State and for the Pacific Slope. So the only cadet of Iowa appointment who has stood in the highest place was born in Wisconsin. One of Pennsylvania's best men was born in New Jersey, etc. Of the eighty-three military valedictorians, one was born in Italy, one in Sweden, two at sea, and three in the District of Columbia. The other seventy-six originated as follows: Fourteen were born in Massachusetts, eleven in New York, eight in Pennsylvania, six in Connecticut, five in Ohio (one of them Carter, now in Leavenworth military prison), four in New Jersey and four in North Carolina, three in Maryland; ten in Virginia, West Virginia, Kentucky, Michigan, and Wisconsin—two in each. The residue of eleven called their mother States Vermont, Rhode Island, Delaware, Tennessee, Missouri, Mississippi, Louisiana, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Oregon. In only twenty-four States was any coryphæus born, while more than half of all those State-born originated in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York and Pennsylvania. Only four of the seceding States had a son who stood foremost of the five to whom alone the name "distinguished" is accorded by the Academy—namely, North Carolina four, Virginia two, Mississippi and Louisiana each one; eight in all.

—Books on the Boer war continue thick as the leaves of Vallombrosa. Of the latest, the most generally serviceable is E. A. Pratt's 'Leading Points in South African History, 1486 to March 30, 1900' (London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.). The sub-title at once betrays the weak point of a book otherwise well conceived. The chronological recital of events, accompanied by terse explanatory notes, gives quick acquaintance with an extremely confused local history; but its value is lessened when it is brought down to date by extracts from war dispatches of doubtful authenticity. Had the book ended with the condemnation of the Jameson Raiders, it might have been cordially recommended; but what has since happened is too much in dispute to be summarized in this ex-parte fashion. For the uncontroverted period of South African history, we recommend it as giving a very full summary, particularly of the transactions with the natives. In these dealings, it is doubtful which race was the more unscrupulous. The record is singularly like that of our relations with the Indian tribes—a pushing frontier population; the acquisition of lands by pioneers; quarrels with the blacks; a local war, a protectorate, a treaty, an insurrection and annexation. The Dutch appear to have been more brutal in their methods, but the English to have acquired the most territory. The contrast noted by Mr. Dooley between French and English diplomacy is confirmed by the dispassionate recitals of these affairs, in which the Dutch were always on the point of consummating a burglary, when the pious English appeared to chastise them and appropriate the "swag" for their moral discipline.

—'On the Eve of the War,' by Evelyn Cecil, M.P. (London: John Murray; New York: Scribners), is chiefly notable for some agreeable photogravures of scenery, buildings, and portrait groups in the Transvaal, Free State, and Natal. The text is of slight consequence. The author was on the scene but a month before the war; and while he honestly endeavors to relate what he saw and heard, he drifts helplessly off into argument of the controversy—all hearsay, and much better done elsewhere. Mr. John Hays Hammond's brief address on 'The Transvaal Trouble' (New York: The Abbey Press) is not open to the objection that it states hearsay only—Mr. Hammond is first-class authority for the Uitlanders; but he says nothing that Fitzpatrick and other writers have not said with greater apparent fairness and much less evident temper.

—This is an age of iconoclasm, in which the critic busies himself in revealing the clay feet of brazen idols. The latest exploit of this kind is that performed by the Benedictine Henri Quentin in his volume entitled 'Jean-Dominique Mansi et les grandes Collections Conciliaires' (Paris: Leroux)—a work to be read with profit by all students who recognize the indispensable importance to the history of civilization and religion of the long series of assemblies through which the Church has formulated its dogmas and developed its discipline, has anathematized its enemies and regulated the aspirations of its children. In this connection the name of Mansi has been virtually a fetish, and scholars have almost hesitated to make references to any collection of Councils save his "Amplissima Collectio," although its thirty-one folios end in the middle of the Council of Florence in 1438 and it never was completed; the patience of subscribers having been exhausted during the forty years consumed in its publication from 1759 to 1798. Père Quentin gives a rapid critical estimate of all the successive collections, from the modest one in two folios issued by Jacques Merlin in 1524, through those of Crabbe, Surius, Bini, the Roman one of 1612, the 'Collectio Regia' of 1644, Labbe and Cossart, Hardouin, and the Venice edition of Labbe enlarged by Coleti, until finally he devotes special attention to the Supplement to the latter in six volumes, edited by Mansi, and still more particularly to Mansi's "Amplissima." The result of this somewhat minute investigation into details is badly to shatter, if not wholly to destroy, Mansi's reputation as an editor. He is shown to have been sadly deficient in critical faculty, and to have done little more than throw together, as with a pitchfork, the labors of previous scholars, with so little care and method that, in the volumes devoted to the Council of Basel, documents are repeated twice, thrice, and even four times, while elsewhere important omissions occur of material that lay ready to the compiler's hand, and everywhere there is lack of critical revision and collation of sources. Mansi was learned and laborious, but when we are told that his name figures on the title-pages of ninety folios, not to mention quartos, and that during his later years he had the cares of his archbishopric of Lucca, it is easy to see how impossible it was for him to exercise the minute and scrupulous accuracy without which his labors were well-nigh valueless. Père Quentin concludes his dissertation with a fervent prayer, in which all students will join, that some band of competent scholars may unite to produce a complete and thoroughly trustworthy collection, furnished with the requisite apparatus—a work which is manifestly beyond the capacity of any individual, however gifted.

PAYNE'S NEW WORLD.

History of the New World Called America. By Edward John Payne, Fellow of University College. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 8vo, pp. xxvii, 548.

An historical production in which facts are used only as substratum, and the rest is all reflection or even speculation, offers peculiarly attractive reading when the work is composed in the right spirit. Among such we may count this 'History of the New World Called America.' It is by no means a repetition of ideas on America emitted by previous historians, essayists, or other authors, but evinces original thought, and often deep reflection, throughout. While Payne's first volume (1892) dealt with geography and the history of discovery and exploration of early America, and the social condition in which the aborigines were found, its successor is prevailingly ethnological, its main purpose being to sketch the evolution of American tribes, peoples, and communities in their physical and mental nature, in their occupations, migrations, peaceful and warlike pursuits, and cultural tendencies; also in what may yield the most profound insight into the psychic development of a nation, their languages.

The discussion of linguistic subjects occupies a large share of the volume, and we will accordingly take up this part first. Speaking of the adjective, Payne states "that it is rarely a prominent feature in American languages, and in many is not definitely recognizable as a part of speech. Thus, the Iroquois and Algonquin have no true adjectives, but merely attributive particles." Indeed, Cuoq states that in the Mohawk, of which he wrote a grammar, there are only three real adjectives, *great*, *small*, and *good*, and in most Algonquin and other American languages the adjective remains without inflection, being employed as an adverb. But Payne should remember the fact, that whenever the adjective is used predicatively, it becomes an attributive verb, for it is then connected with a suffix having the power of a substantive verb of *being*. These attributive verbs are very prominent features in American languages, as in Algonquinian, Maskokian, and Dakotan dialects, but it is often difficult to distinguish their uninflected adjectives from what we call participles and verbal adjectives.

Specific words greatly predominate over generic terms in the languages of America, and savages may have twenty independent words, each expressing the act of cutting some particular thing, without having any name for the act of cutting in general. This is a remarkable fact, and it is surprising to see how many simple, compound, and holo-

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phrastic verbs are used in Algonquin to express the various modes of running, falling, cutting, or eating. As to the lack of generic terms for different objects of nature, *e. g., bird, fish, tree*, it is not so great in American languages as grammarians make it appear.

That the "specific relations of the noun are usually represented by case-endings" is by no means an accurate statement, for a number of extensive linguistic families, such as the Tinné, have no case-endings at all; and in the Algonquin and Iroquois dialects the formation of nominal cases is almost wholly limited to the locatives. As a general fact, it may be stated that, in the tongues spoken on the plains of eastern North and eastern South America, case-declension is deficient or fragmentary, but in the higher regions of the Sierra Nevada, Rocky Mountains, and the Andes, languages are well provided with case-forms. What our author says about conjunctions being generally syllables of indefinite meaning, has to be supplemented by the fact that many of our conjunctions are rendered in American languages by temporal, causal, local, and other suffixes to the verb, and form what is called *verbals*. For many of these verbals new terms have to be invented, for old-world grammatic terminology by no means suffices to express all the grammatical forms in use by the red man of America.

The interesting fact that many alphabetic sounds of English and other European languages are non-existent in more primitive tongues, is discussed in a lengthy chapter by Payne, and explained by the circumstance that such sounds are not easily acquired, or that their origin is an artificial one. The labials *f* and *v* are scarcely known in America, but all the dentals are generally well represented here. In Australia and parts of Africa and Asia the sibilants *s, sh, z, zh* are rejected; the Nahuatl has *z*, but rejects *s* and *sh*, and the various sounds of *l* are more acceptable to the American than those of *r*. In the majority of the American languages *s* and *z* occur simultaneously with the assibilated *sh* and *zh*, and alternate in the same words; *s* and *z* being evidently more archaic than *sh* and *zh*. Payne supposes that the vibratiles, or, as we call them, liquids *(l, r)*, being the easiest and most natural consonantic sounds, may be regarded as the earliest group among the "adjustments" (p. 151), and in the lowest stage of speech were probably indistinguishable. The Dakota, Totonac, and Mixtec have rejected both, probably substituting *n* in their place; but, generally speaking, *l* is more frequent upon this continent than *r*.

The question, "Did the American man originate here or did he migrate here from another continent?" Mr. Payne touches upon in his preface (p. 6), in these terms:

> "A race distinguished from the inferior animals only by some painful and strenuous form of articulate speech, the possession of rude stone weapons and implements and of the art of fire-kindling, . . . may have lived in the Old and New World in the palæo-ethnic age, . . . and during long ages man roamed over both, as a single œcumenic area. When a geological change had separated them, an intercourse between them became less and less until the American branch of humanity became practically an isolated race, as America itself had become an isolated continent."

From the time when America became separated from the old-world continents, the cultural development, weak as it was at the start, took different lines. This appears, for example, from the difference between the Mexican calendar in Cortez's time and the Asiatic (say Chinese) system of time reckoning. China had known the Metonic cycle of nineteen years, which is built upon a *luni-solar* basis, even before Meton of Athens invented or promulgated it in 432 B. C.; but the Mexican cycle is *solar* only, and belongs to the Western World originally, though some have regarded it as borrowed. This, however, is but one of the points in which early American civilization differed entirely from that of the Eastern world. Since our knowledge of ancient America centres upon a few tribes only, whose culture placed them far above common savages, Payne took special pains to investigate the civil and mental development of the Nahuâ (he prefers to call them Nahuatlacâ, *Nahua* = 'Men') and the Kechhua people, without forgetting the Maya of Yucatan and the Chibcha of Bogotá. Before the Spanish conquest of Anahuac, most Mexican tribes described themselves as Chichimecs, and the people of Tlaxcallan especially called themselves Teochichimecâ, or 'Chichimecs of the Sun' (*teotl*). These had advanced, like the other Aculhua tribes, from the "Seven Caves" and Jalisco by way of the Tollan district and the lakes; their peculiar tribal name was derived from the fact that they proposed to discover and occupy Teotlixco = Anahuac, or the 'Land of the water where the sun rises' (*teotl*, or sun, being 'the god,' or 'the god by excellence'), an imaginary land. Some years were passed at Texcuco, and, coming in conflict with the pueblos surrounding them, they crossed the sierra of Tlalocan. In a similar way the author sketches the early history of the other tribes and pueblos of the Mexican plateaus, Tollan, Huexohzinco, Tecpanec, Tezcuco, until the settling of Tenochtitlan gives him a resting-point from which to expatiate further upon the system of Mexican attributes, education, law and justice, and land-distribution.

As to the consolidation of American populations into tribes and compact national bodies, and their formation into distinct settlements, Payne admits that some are much older than others and can still be distinguished as such; these he calls autochthonic, while others are later arrivals. In regard to the lands now known as Mexico, a line may be drawn from the mouth of the Rio Grande to Guadalajara in Jalisco, to the north of which is a congeries of peoples distinct from one another in physical character and language, whereas south of it begin the pueblos of the old, genuine, and relatively unmixed nationalities of the Nahuâ, Otomi, Tarasco, Totonac, and others. A mixture of ethnic elements was, however, produced here also by the numerous colonies established from Anahuac in later times among the allophylic peoples, and therefore only the tribes settled east of the isthmus of Tehuantepec, such as Mayas, Guatemaltecs, Costa Ricans, etc., can be called *aboriginal* when compared with those west of this "limit." Mr. Payne is unwilling to admit that the Maya people possessed an indigenous civilization independent of that of the Nahuatlacâ. But this view will meet with considerable opposition among students. If his conclusions are well founded, he says, the Maya monuments and "pinturas" are due to the Toltecs, a branch of the Nahuâ, who are regarded "by general consent" as the founders of the higher advancement in this region. These left Tollan for causes no longer distinctly traceable, and, long before Columbus's discovery, spread into Yucatan and Central America. Beyond maize cultivation and some peculiar theological traditions, the Mayas "borrowed everything in their advancement" from the Nahuatlacâ.

The calendar systems of Mexico, Yucatan, and Central America were substantially identical. One of the day-counts, the noctidiurnal birth-cycle, as Payne calls it, was in use at the time of the conquest, and consisted of 13×20 days. The number thirteen was based on the fact that, from an infinite number of higher and lower spirits, in the earliest stage of religion, thirteen greater male and female spirits were recognized in Mexico as gods of superior rank, powers ruling the universe and the sequence of days. Each noctidiurnal cycle consisted of thirteen days, and twenty sequences of this cycle made a calendar period; each day in this cycle once bore a name borrowed from a very old seasonal enumeration of lunations, in use at some previous time. The day-names in this cycle seem to be seasonal names of lunations, as is common among savage nations; their succession seems to point to Anahuac, and the birth-day cycle was known in Mexico as "moon-reckoning," *metzlapohualli*. Another day reckoning that was in use comes pretty close to our year reckoning. It is the *cempoualli*, or twenty-day period repeated eighteen times, and, with the five fatal days *(nemontemi)*, reaches a total of 365 days. Payne believes that here the number twenty was suggested by the fingers and toes of the human body. The ordinary civil and religious calendar consisted of four cycles of thirteen, making a great cycle of fifty-two years, called *ahau* by the Maya people. It represents the greatest number of full and new moons occurring in the year. There is nothing to prove that the Inca-Peruvian people possessed a true calendar in which the days and months were numerically adjusted to the solar year. In the chief pueblos the four cardinal points in the sun's course were ascertained by means of the Intihuatana, and at Cuzco the phenomena of the solstice were familiarized by two groups of pillars placed conspicuously on heights to the east and westward, and marking the extreme points of the sun's rising and setting. They had a year of 360 days, understood to be distributed into twelve natural moons of thirty days each, with a name assigned to each moon; they reckoned by the succession of lunations, but had no means to coördinate this reckoning summarily with the succession of years. The names of the sections of the year were taken from agricultural operations in the field, among the Aimará people. As to the calendar of the Chibcha people in Bogotá, Payne considers it a counterfeit dating from a late period, but composed of ancient elements derived from sundry South American nations.

A large number of topics, particularly the formation of the tribe, the clan, early marriage, etc., deserve equally to be mentioned with those we have selected. We must, however, conclude by saying that the two volumes as yet published of Payne's 'History' are a noteworthy instance of what may be accomplished by an Americanist who has never visited this western hemisphere in person, nor seen any of its tribes or ancient monuments, but with marvellous instinct and historic tact has resolved so many of

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its secrets from books alone. The sequel will be eagerly awaited.

London to Ladysmith, via Pretoria. By Winston Spencer Churchill. Longmans, Green & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. 496.

Mr. Churchill's experience as a war correspondent had an episode which added much to the romantic character of his army life in South Africa. He was taken prisoner with the detachment on an armored railway train that was derailed and captured by the Boers on November 15. They were reconnoitring from headquarters at Estcourt northward towards the Tugela River, and the enterprising correspondent naturally wished to see what was at the front. He saw more than he bargained for, and had a Boer escort to Pretoria, where he made the acquaintance of Krüger's Secretary of War and other distinguished Afrikanders. He made a daring escape from the military prison, and had an adventurous journey to Delagoa Bay which would make any boy green with envy. Back by sea to Durban, he hastened again to his post at the front, and on the day before Christmas his tent was at the very spot where he had been captured. Meanwhile, Gen. Buller had concentrated there his army corps, had been repulsed at the Tugela River, and was deliberately preparing for another advance. Churchill had not lost much by his excursion to Pretoria. He now got a commission in the volunteer cavalry to save question as to his status if he was captured again in some less absurd reconnoissance than one by rail.

The operations to try a second crossing of the Tugela began on January 11. The plan was to threaten with the right, but to force the crossing at the left, some twenty miles in a bee-line west of Colenso and the railway crossing. Venter's Creek there comes in from the north, and its valley offered a way to turn the Boers' right by taking Spy Knob (Spion Kop), where they were supposed to have an outpost. This was going a long way round, for the crossing at Trichardt's Drift, near the creek's mouth, was nearly twice as far from Ladysmith as Colenso was. The promise to reach the commanding position at the Knob could be made good only by speed, yet a week was spent watching the enemy extending the trenches on the north of the river. On the 18th the column began a leisurely crossing at Trichardt's, with very little opposition, and pontoon bridges were laid. The infantry advanced about two miles and waited till next day. Immense wagon trains also crossed. Nothing at all was done on the 19th. On the 20th an attack was made, but the Knob was no longer an outpost, for the Boers had been given plenty of time to move to their right. The English gained a foothold on the plateau. For two days more the firing was kept up between the lines with no material change. In the night of the 23d Gen. Woodgate's brigade made an assault on the Knob and got a lodgment on it. In the early morning of the 24th the Boers concentrated their fire upon it. Woodgate was wounded and disabled.

It becomes evident at this point that there was no competent direction of the division. Churchill says that he visited in person the scene of action, and went back to Gen. Warren, the division commander, and described the situation. Warren, instead of going himself, sent him back to learn the views of Col. Thorneycroft, who, though a junior officer, had been placed by Buller's order in command on the Knob when it became evident that his senior in the brigade was unequal to it. Thorneycroft, who had received no messages from Warren before, now, in the night of the 24th, thought it too late to make the position tenable, and it was abandoned. If Churchill's description of events is accurate, it is no wonder that Lord Roberts condemned the generalship of the battle. On the 24th Mr. Pearse at Ladysmith had seen the Boer wagons trekking away towards the pass in the northwest, and believed their retreat had begun. It is hard to believe that proper energy by Gen. Warren on that day would not have made success complete; and Buller, in the crisis, should have applied the energy himself if Warren failed. Spion Kop should have been made impregnable before daybreak after its capture. Thorneycroft held it all through the following day, and still he was not reinforced, nor connection made with his flanks. When the Knob was abandoned, Buller went over the river in person to manage the retreat, but it would have been better if he had been there to give system and energy to the attack.

The action at Vaal Krantz on February 5 is described as being similar in its leisurely beginning, its partial success, and the failure to follow it up. The final turning of the Boer position at the end of February was by the English right, after their capture of the commanding ridge of Monte Christo; but we cannot ignore the fact that this was after Lord Roberts's advance into the Orange Free State had drawn away a considerable part of the Boer army about Ladysmith, and made the raising of the siege a foregone conclusion.

The campaign under Buller, judged from Mr. Churchill's narrative (which tries to be friendly), was marked by a deliberation in planning and a sluggishness in execution so extreme as to take away from it all energetic aggressiveness, and to give to the mobile army of Boers abundant time and opportunity to plant themselves in strong positions and intrench in front of each new movement of the British. The forces under Buller, with those in Gen. White's garrison, were at all times far superior to the enemy in numbers. Cipher communication by heliograph and search-light telegraphy was constant between the two English commanders, yet they seem never to have coöperated in a common effort, although the distance between them was less than the length of the lines of either army, and those of the Boers extended with practical continuity from White to Buller. As commander-in-chief, Buller does not appear to have attempted any well-conceived simultaneous operation by his two wings upon the weaker force of the Boers which lay between. It is not so strange that the Boers contented themselves with defensive tactics after their offensive strategy had carried the war beyond their own borders into Natal. The necessity of economy in the use of their smaller numbers, with the unfitness of their irregular organizations for battle tactics on a large scale, combined to dictate the policy which they pursued.

It is pleasant to note that Mr. Churchill, while he was prisoner, found even the least cultivated of the Veldt Boers free from personal hate, and considerately kind in their treatment of him. They seemed to him good honest farmers, anxious to end the war and get back to their families and their fields if they might do so in the national independence on which they had set their hearts. It was human nature that they should underrate the rights of Uitlanders and of black Africans, and stick for the complete dominance of the Dutch settlers in what they consider their own country.

North American Forests and Forestry. Their Relations to the National Life of the American People. By Ernest Bruncken, Secretary of the late Wisconsin State Forestry Commission. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1900.

When we observe the prodigal and wholly unwise use of our forest heritage, it seems sometimes as if almost nothing were being done in any way to inculcate successfully the principles of sound management. One turns away, sick at heart, as he sees the treasures of our forests squandered recklessly, and feels that he cannot unaided exert any influence in favor of a true economy. Nevertheless, in spite of the discouraging outlook, it is possible to detect, here and there, some signs of better times and of a judicious policy. The constant, although sometimes tactless, exhortations of the early Commissioners of Agriculture, and the more skilful presentations of the matter by their successors, are beginning to yield tangible results. These results are as yet scanty, but they convey a little hope that the subject will soon receive the attention which it deserves, and be taken from the category of impracticable reforms, to be placed securely among the accepted factors of national prosperity.

The establishment of Government forest reserves, although not very graciously welcomed by some of those who will thereby most benefit in the long run, is a step in the right direction. If the reserves are tactfully managed, as it seems likely they will be, a great deal of good must follow in an educational way. People who now look upon forestry as on a par with gentleman-gardening and gentleman-agriculture, useful chiefly as affording a basis for the activity of humorists, will see that true forestry means a small but certain profit calculable in per cents. The establishment of forest schools connected with our larger institutions of learning, and the deepening interest in courses on forestry, where the name of Forest School has not yet been assumed, point in the same direction. The experiment of one of the largest forest-owning corporations in our country, looking towards scientific management of the *crop* of available wood, is perhaps even more hopeful than either of the other encouraging signs mentioned. Forest-wasters, greedily seeking to skin their forest-covered lands, have to pause when they hear of experiments in thrift on lands close to their own. It is also to the well-informed agricultural journals throughout the land that we must attribute much influence in helping to lift the weight of despair which has so long discouraged concerted effort to save our forests. Through evil report and ridicule, they have kept up the fight against the universal spendthrift policy which has hitherto characterized all lumbering here. To them and to the special forest journals must be given high praise, if lumbering in our country ever yields to wise forest man-

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agement. And, further still, to certain judicious publications by the general Government and by the States, must be assigned part of the credit, when our forests come to be properly cared for.

The book before us is another indication that the times are ripe for reform. We are sorry to note that the author, on his title-page, writes "*late*" Forestry Commission of Wisconsin. It seems a pity to have efficient work stop where it is so much needed as in our northern tier of wooded States. Mr. Bruncken's book, of about 250 pages, is readable, and, for the most part, trustworthy. Exception may be taken to some of his suggestions relative to the treatment of forest trees, but such matters of detail do not impair the value of the work to the general reader. General readers are not likely to take up forest management, and specialists will of course be guided by the text-books rather than by general works like the present. Therefore we commend Mr. Bruncken's book as useful in all essential particulars.

Part of the prejudice against forestry in America has doubtless arisen from the silly attempts made here and there to introduce without modification European methods. In many countries in Europe, every severed twig and bit of bark must go to form the faggot, and eager hands clutch all fallen branches. Everything is turned to account. In our lumber camps the largest branches go to waste, and place, when dry, all the woods in peril from fire. The conditions of planting trees are wholly different, and the height of absurdity would seem to be reached when the owner of a small wood-lot is advised to keep a forester. In the book before us there are no such childish councils. The advice which the author gives is suited to our needs and our conditions. Until one stops to think how vast the normal forest area is in the United States, and how diversified are the constituents of our forests, he cannot realize the impracticability of laying down a set of rules to be applied throughout. World-wide differences exist between the forests of our Northeast, sometimes parched by protracted droughts, and the heavy growths in the moist Northwest. Each must have its own set of rules. The recognition of these differences is a part of the duty of the Division of Forestry in the Department of Agriculture at Washington, and advice concerning the different kinds of management is now being sought by practical men. It is to be sincerely hoped that the book we have here noticed may excite a still wider interest in the whole subject, and indicate to many forest owners the advantage they could gain from expert advice at their command in the Division of Forestry and in some of the State commissions.

It is pleasant to notice that many young men in America are seriously adopting forestry as an occupation. To such as can bring to their work sound training in the elementary subjects which are concerned with the distribution, healthy growth, and diseases of forest trees, and supplement that training by practical studies in common-sense forestry, positions of usefulness must be open. At the outset, the number of positions will be small, and the pay never can be large; but to each well-equipped man, clear in his head and ready to work with strong hands, a career of honorable activity will be surely within reach. To all young men of courage who have such outdoor work in mind, we commend Mr. Bruncken's closing chapter, "On Forestry as a Profession."

The White Robe of Churches of the Eleventh Century: Pages from the Story of Gloucester Cathedral. By the Very Rev. H. D. M. Spence, D.D., Dean of Gloucester. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. Pp. xx, 348.

This is a stout little octavo, illustrated by some seventy-five pictures, of which a dozen are separate plates in photogravure, half-tone, or collotype. These are from such photographs as are rather easily obtainable. Of the text illustrations, some are taken from Viollet-le-Duc's 'Dictionary of Architecture,' some from Corroyer's 'Architecture Romane'; those of decorative glass are taken from Merson's 'Les Vitraux'; while two or three are credited to other books, and some very humble, old-fashioned woodcuts, like those which used to decorate our school geographies, are inserted without credit being given—as is natural enough, their original provenience being, perhaps, lost. Three drawings by Herbert Railton are given; but these are views of the author's own special dominion, the Cathedral of Gloucester, and whether they have appeared in another book or not is not stated. No great success attends the use of these illustrations of such varied source and character. Even where there are no mistakes made in the legend or title and where the single elucidation may pass, the lack of true relation between different pictures is regrettable; and, perhaps, for utility's sake, the book would be better without the pictures than with them. There are blunders, however; thus, on page 161, the ground plans of the two great cathedrals of Paris and of Bourges are displayed, but on such widely different scales as to mislead the beginner into the conviction that one was vastly larger in total dimensions and in detail than the other; while at the same time Paris is called Bourges, and Bourges is called Paris. Thus much needs to be said of the illustrations, which, with a little more minute care, might have aided greatly the study of the work.

As for the text, it is far from being without value, and, perhaps, exemplifies that kind of utility which the work of the conscientious, half-informed writer may have for persons who will not read the work of the better scholar. It is a pity to see in the appendix, and occupying much more than half of it, reference with commendation to that rubbishing book which we have already reviewed, Leader Scott's 'Cathedral Builders.' This, and the fantastical theory about the Comacines, is likely to do a great deal of harm during the next five years, but each special occurrence of its mischievous influence is to be noted. Similarly, a kind of mistake that comes of too much stress laid upon one point, and too strong an assertion of something approximately true, is to be found, as might have been expected in such a book. It is rather gratifying, however, to note the author's use of the word Romanesque for the earlier round-arched building of England, and his consequent ignoring of the misleading term Norman—misleading when used for architecture not essentially influenced by the people or by the art of Normandy. The spirit of the book, the character of its assertions, the manner in which general principles are stated and urged, are generally good. Gloucester Cathedral serves continually to point the moral. As is natural, the writer deals with what he knows most minutely; and what he has to say about Romanesque design, about painting applied to mediæval architecture, and about restoration of ancient monuments, is as well explained by the instances under his eyes in Gloucester as it could have been in any other examples.

In fact, the book is calculated to give a great deal of valuable information, and more especially to give a right leading to the future studies of the beginner who may read it through. The little affectations, as in the title and in the odd laudation of the title given in the humble dedication to a princess, will hurt no one's feelings, and may even excite personal interest in the writings of a man who evidently possesses an individuality of his own.

Illustrations of Logic. By Paul T. Lafleur. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 97.

Prof. Lafleur has taken the trouble to ransack more than a hundred good writers and cull from them three hundred specimens of arguments, of which the greater part are valid or invalid according as they are free or not from any confusion between the ideas of *some* and *all*. That is to say, they are arguments that can be tested by Aristotelian syllogistics. The preface supplies unintentionally a three hundred and first example, for Mr. Lafleur there remarks that an instructor "finds difficulty in convincing his hearers that the logic of the class-room bears any relation to thought as met with in ordinary discussion and books"—implying that these illustrations ought to convince them that that logic supplies all that is requisite to judge of the validity of ordinary reasoning. Now, it is certainly true that most students, confusedly perceiving that any argument which requires close attention to apprehend its force depends upon something more than the *some* and *all* of traditional syllogistic, jump to the conclusion that there is no important element of right inference of which that doctrine takes account. This confuses *some* illative principles with *all*, and the conclusion is not true, since training in ordinary logic will almost insure a man against confusions of that kind. But, on the other hand, those who teach the old logic, finding that a great many important arguments can be thrown into syllogistic form, which really only proves that they involve a syllogistic element, jump to the conclusion that no important principle of reasoning has been overlooked, thereby falling into the very same fallacy that ensnares their pupils. The conclusion is not true, since, upon the examination of the syllogistic statement, it will often be found (not to say always, if the argument is at all difficult) that the whole gist of the reasoning has been thrown into the premises, so that the question of its validity is untouched by any criticism of the forms of the syllogisms. Hence, the need for a logic of relatives. The following three hundred and second "illustration" will show, if it be syllogistically treated, the truth of the above; ordinary syllogistic being incompetent to decide whether it is a sound argument or not:

If our duties on Cuban sugar were abolished, either our consumers would buy their

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sugar much cheaper, or else Cuban planters would get a far better price for their sugar. But the latter event would create a powerful stimulus to the production of sugar in Cuba, and since what now limits the production there is not so much a lack of suitable land or of anything of which the possible supply is already near exhaustion, but only the cost of machinery, etc., which can be had in almost any quantity at present prices, or lower, it follows that the production would be immensely increased if much better prices could be got. Then, since this country must remain the principal market for Cuban sugar, either much more sugar must be sold here, or else the supply from other quarters (which is not now nearly so great as that from Cuba) must be very greatly curtailed. But, on the one hand, our people already use extravagant amounts of sugar, almost as much as they would if it cost nothing. Hence, a very considerable reduction of price would be necessary in order to increase the consumption in any large proportion. Nor, on the other hand, could the production of cane-sugar elsewhere than in Cuba be greatly curtailed unless there were a motive for partially abandoning its production, in the shape of a considerable diminution of the profits of that production. In either case, therefore, the price of sugar to consumers in the United States would be very considerably reduced.

Let anybody who thinks that, even granting the facts alleged, the above is not a sound argument (as most of our readers will probably agree it is not), endeavor to detect the flaw in it by any ordinary syllogistic rules, or let anybody show it is sound reasoning by those rules (without throwing the gist of the argument into the premises), and in either event we will admit that something has been done to rehabilitate the logic of the schools.

Mr. Lafleur may remonstrate that he puts forth no argument in his preface, but merely states a fact. John Dryden might on the same ground protest against Mr. Lafleur's Illustration No. 1, which is Dryden's couplet—

> "All human things are subject to decay,
> And when fate summons, monarchs must obey."

But the compiler would rightly reply, "Mr. Dryden, you perhaps had no definite intention of arguing, but in fact you did argue essentially as in the stock example, 'All men are mortal; Sortes is a man; hence, Sortes is mortal.'" In like manner, Mr. Lafleur's statement of fact does convey to the reader's mind an argument, and, if insidiously, so much the more dangerously.

After all this tirade, we desire to say that Mr. Lafleur's little book will certainly be an enlivening and useful agent in the classroom. We wish that somebody would supplement it with a collection of real illustrations of relative reasonings, of striking problems in the doctrine of chances, of moot cases in inductive reasoning, and of examples in hypothetic investigations.

La Rénovation de l'Asie. Par Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

This well-known French author, who writes briskly and with notable literary skill, made a journey of two years through the northern parts of Asia, studying the people and their official documents, and contributing the results of his observations from time to time to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. He considers the renovation of Asia as the striking phenomenon of the second half of the century not yet finished. The main factors of this renovation are the evolution of Japan from a hermit nation to a world Power, the astonishing developments of Russia in Siberia, and the changes in China which suggest a problem of the first order of complexity. The revelation, since the war of 1894-5, of China's political weakness enables the author to picture in graphic phrase the amazing contrast between "the sick man in Peking" and the as yet untouched resources of both the soil and the sub-soil of China. Visiting the capital, which he describes in lively French phrase, the author sees, in the attitude of the population towards foreigners and their indifference to the outward world, a type of decadence of the entire empire. The chief cause of China's political marasmus lies in her learned men, whose minds are as impervious to new light and ideas as are the stone images on the Ming tombs.

In treating of the people, the author pays many a compliment to their abilities and character. They are not in decadence, but their spirit has lost all elasticity. Their whole look is backward. Their golden age was long ago, and the future has no hope. While Japanese think that if Confucius and Mencius were living to-day, they would be in the forefront of progress, the Chinese picture them as mighty teachers always standing with their backs to the present. The author treats intelligently of the foreigners in China and of the concessions made to them in the years 1842, 1858, 1860, 1895, and 1898. The Chinese, even when they bow before the foreigners' force and profit by their material advantages, hold them in supreme contempt. This hostility among the learned directors of opinion is the greatest obstacle to progress.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu is surprised at the new relations between China and the Powers discernible since the war of 1895. These have resulted wholly to Russia's advantage. Japan had a dream of conquest; but Russia, drawing in France and Germany, not only drove Japan away from her prey, but substituted at Peking her own all-powerful influence in place of the British, which had been paramount before. The author gives a very readable résumé of Russia in Asia. His whole discussion is fresh, suggestive, and clear. He shows that Russian expansion in Asia was contemporaneous with that of western Europe in the New World. There are many analogies between the north of Asia and the north of America, in which are three zones, the author describing their extent and production. The native population is insignificant, and the immense majority of the inhabitants are Russians. The Polar tribes are decreasing, while the Mongol population is increasing more slowly than the Russians, who, having large families, lead all races. In this population of Russian emigrants, there are many hetereogeneous elements, including the Jews and the Raskolniks, or dissenters from the Russian church. The author is enthusiastic about the mineral riches and commercial possibilities, including the transit of tea from China and Japan, of southern Siberia. The cities are of little importance, the rural population being by far the most promising. The iron road is in competition with the sea path, and the wheel with the keel, but it is evident that by the overland road, and not by the ocean, the civilizations of the East and the West are to merge. Two million emigrants yearly rush over the rails to Siberia.

In treating of Japan, after glancing at its origins and past history, the author calls attention to the diversity of opinion about the Japanese and the reality of the reforms which they have undertaken. He is perfectly right in insisting that, to obtain a correct judgment, one must know Japan's history. Thus only can he appreciate the nature and the consequences of the modern transformation and gauge the chances of the future civilization of Japan. M. Leroy-Beaulieu shows that the evolution of Japan's early civilization was arrested under the Tokugawa shoguns, who excluded foreigners and so included the people that growth was impossible. When, however, the long-repressed energy broke forth, it was embraced by the European civilization without resistance. To-day Japan is a land of contrasts. The old and the new jostle. Landing at Nagasaki, our traveller voyaged through the Inland Sea, finding Yokohama, though only forty years old, with a population of 170,000 souls. Tokio is a city of telephones and electric lights. Amazing is the development of Japanese industry, which in its activities has been redoubled since the war with China, for Japan means to capture the Chinese market, the greatest single market in the world. She will not hesitate to fight Russia on the sea, should that be necessary. Yokohama is the commercial, Osaka is the manufacturing centre. Agricultural life is as yet predominant, though with a tendency to lessen in relative importance, the rural population being very dense on the plains and in the low valleys. The author was pleased with the good humor and politeness of the peasantry, notes the diffusion of Western civilization and instruction among them, shows the cost of living, and reveals the very modest budget of a little Japanese home. Statistical details illustrate the enormous development of commerce both at home and abroad.

Japan's remarkable financial prosperity on the eve of the war with China is another topic. The wonderful faculty of organization displayed during the campaigns, on land and sea, is praised. In consequence of this war, however, a military and naval programme of startling proportions has been formulated. Now, the problem of Japan is how to get the two hundred and forty million of yen to carry it out. Treating of politics and social life, M. Leroy-Beaulieu remarks the preponderance of the Samurai, that class of men who have enjoyed intellectual culture for a thousand years, while to the people at large even schools are a novelty. The clan spirit still survives. Though the "ring" of Choshiu and Satsuma men that surrounded the Emperor for thirty years is broken, and the combat of Parliament against the Ministry, made up of southern clansmen, is over, yet real party government has hardly been attained, for Japanese parties are chaotic. Signs of amelioration are nevertheless recognized.

The growth of a warmer sentiment between Japan and Great Britain has created a sort of championship for the integrity of the Chinese Empire, while hostility to Russia increases. Yet there are ways in which Russia and Japan may walk as friends and even allies. In the final chapter the author discusses, with ability and many a fertile suggestion, as well as with precedent and

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analogy, the question whether a people can assimilate the civilization of a different race. How far does Japan desire similarity to Europe? He gives a correct picture of the country since the revision of the treaties, and believes that it will be necessary for the Japanese to enter into communication as intimately as possible, so that Western civilization may strengthen and not emaciate them. Altogether, this is a very timely and very able book by an author who gathers without prejudice his facts at first hand.

Textbook of Palæontology. By. K. A. von Zittel. Translated and edited by Chas. R. Eastman. Revised and enlarged edition. Macmillan & Co. 1900. Vol. I., pp. x, 706. 8vo. With 1,476 woodcuts.

Invertebrate palæontology long remained quiescent after the Darwinian ripples had thoroughly broken up the placid surface of zoölogy. This came about from the prevalence of the ancient notion that fossils were the "Medals of Creation," related to one another and to the existing fauna only as medals are to other medals. Thus there grew up a body of students who empirically correlated particular fossils with particular horizons, as one fastens price-tags to bolts of cloth in a shop. These men in the main studied fossils as fossils, with the least possible reference to existing animals, and many of them became wonderfully expert in their chosen field, and produced invaluable iconographic volumes illustrating fossil remains. A few, who studied vertebrate remains, were forced to use the bones of existing animals in comparisons, and it has been chiefly from this small company that palæontologic philosophers have arisen.

A gradual illumination slowly penetrated the cloisters of invertebrate palæontology, but no real change of method took place until very recently, long after the zoölogists had been rioting in the stimulating rays of the evolutionary sun. As usual, the textbooks have lagged behind the workers. That palæontology is not a distinct science, but a particularly hampered section of biology, where students struggle against enormous difficulties to win fragmentary but essential testimony as to the history of living organisms, was academically admitted in the spirit of the politician who was in favor of the Maine Law but opposed to its enforcement. To the efforts of Huxley, Cope, Hyatt, Ryder, and similar heresiarchs is due a change which is nothing less than fundamental in the way of looking at and interpreting the testimony of fossils.

Among those who had attained eminence in palæontology under the old conditions were a few who pressed earnestly but with cautious steps towards the light of the new day. The most eminent of these has long been acknowledged in Von Zittel. His manual and text-book of Palæontology have been of the greatest use to students, and have represented the best and most scientific summation of the older Palæontology in the attitude of welcoming the new. No worthy text-book of Palæontology has existed in the English language, the nearest approach to it being the illustrative palæontological paragraphs in Dana's 'Manual of Geology,' excellent of their kind but very limited in scope. With a view to supplying this deficiency, Dr. Eastman undertook a translation of Von Zittel's 'Grundzüge der Palaeontologie,' at first intended to be literal, but later, with the consent of the author, fundamentally altered in many respects. The chapters on the Protozoa and Coelenterata remain as in the original, but all the rest has been more or less modified, revised, or entirely rewritten. The gracious attitude of Dr. von Zittel towards the ducklings which have been hatched out in this process of incubation, for some of whom he can hardly be expected to show any paternal feeling, is beyond all praise. Nothing more fully informed with the true scientific spirit than his personal preface can be imagined.

The composite nature of the present work, some portions of which were only received by the editor after earlier parts were stereotyped, has naturally resulted in some incongruities, the most notable of which is the appearance in two places of certain families formerly regarded as corals, but now plausibly claimed by the students of Polyzoa. The recent advances in our knowledge of Conularia, its sessile habit and probable relegation to the hydroid polyps, have not found a place in the shuffling of old and new. However, criticisms of detail are relatively unimportant in view of the steps forward into the realm of modernity made by many chapters of this volume. The footing may not always be secure nor the trail clean-hewn of obstacles, but it leads in the right direction. The most notable advances are made in the groups of Polyzoa, Mollusca, and Trilobites, in which nothing but part of the bibliography and all the illustrations remain of the old work, the text being entirely original. Any book summing up the latest work on Crinoids, Polyzoa, Brachiopods, Cephalopods, and Trilobites by such authorities as Wachsmuth, Ulrich, Schuchert, Hyatt, and Beecher, must remain a classic, whether all matters of detail are finally accepted or not.

It is only fair to point out that the work done by Dr. Eastman's dozen collaborators, involving much time, drudgery, and sacrifice, has been wholly a labor of love; their services having been given at the appeal of the editor to make for the coming generation of students a manual which would join to lavish and elegant illustrations a text stimulated by the spirit of modern research, and in this way make the path easier for those who will, in some future decade, prepare a new Manual of Palæontology free from current incongruities and with all the advance of science recorded.

Bach. By C. F. Abdy Williams. E. P. Dutton & Co. Pp. 223.

The deepest of all musical thinkers died 150 years ago. Great would have been the astonishment of Johann Sebastian Bach and his fellow-townsmen and contemporaries could they have been told that, in the year 1900, American journalists would be called upon to review a new biography of him containing a three-page bibliography with more than fifty entries, one of them a monumental work in two volumes of nearly 1,900 pages. It is true that Bach was not without honor in his own country, but it was as a performer on the organ and the clavichord that he was appreciated, not as a composer. Even his organ playing was often above the comprehension of his neighbors, and at Arnstadt the Consistory charged him "with having made extraordinary variations in the chorals, and with intermixing many strange sounds, so that thereby his congregation were confounded." Later on, at Leipzig, he was admonished for "doing nothing" when he had been composing a number of his immortal church cantatas and the great Matthew Passion! Bach did not accept these slurs meekly. He was, in his small sphere, almost as great a fighter as Wagner, and was always in hot water with the authorities in his struggle in behalf of art. His temper, too, was on occasion as violent as Wagner's or Handel's. One day when Görner, the organist of the Thomas Church, made a blunder, Bach pulled off his own wig and threw it at him, shouting, "You ought to be a cobbler!"

Mr. Williams, whose readable little volume is based on the best German authorities, makes it clear that Bach was not so poor as has been assumed. His income from various sources was, it is true, only about $500 a year, but, as the author computes (p. 80), the purchasing power of this sum was equal to $3,150 in our day. However, Bach had nineteen children to bring up, and he sent two of them to the university, so that it is not surprising that his widow died in an almshouse and was buried in a pauper's grave. Bach's own grave was forgotten and lost. Its discovery, a few years ago, makes a detective story of great interest, which Mr. Williams might have advantageously incorporated in his pages. He should also have given some space to Mendelssohn and Franz for their labors in restoring Bach's works to the world. Apart from such omissions he has done his work well, and we have noted no errors except a few misprints (*sätzes* and *gülden* for *satzes* and *gulden*). The story of Bach's life is kept separate from the consideration of his works, which takes up about half the volume. The difference between Handel and Bach is thus summed up: "Handel, domiciled in England, knew his public, and knew them so well that he wrote works which not only became popular at once, but have never ceased to be popular. Bach either did not know or did not care to please his public, and wrote far above their heads, so that for a time after his death he was forgotten entirely. . . . Burney devotes nearly a whole volume to Handel and only one paragraph to Bach."

A Short History of Free Thought, Ancient and Modern. By John M. Robertson. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co. 1899. 8vo, pp. 477.

Free thought about religion has, far more than science or philosophy, been broken up into a hundred separate movements; and this circumstance compels, in any single-volume review of them, so succinct a treatment of each movement that, though this volume is not small and a good deal of it is in fine print, the history is rightly named a short one. Had sufficient references been given to other works to make this a guide to the literature of the special topics, it would have been a valuable manual; but, that not having been done, it remains a short history and nothing more.

Some general theories regarding the course of free thought that the author seeks constantly to illustrate, serve to connect the different morsels and to maintain the read-

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er's interest. Mr. Robertson's own rationalism is extreme. It does not seem to have struck him as possible that thinking for one's self may bring a man to entertain a higher respect, in the matter of religion, for those elements of our nature that bind men together than for the speculations of his individual reason. Nor does he seem to recognize any conceivable outcome from rationalistic speculation but unbelief. Nor does he remark, what everybody perceives, that prevalent unbelief in any age is quite as gregarious and wanting in independence as prevalent belief, the vanity with which it is tinctured being rather a levitating quality than adding to its weight. He has not a word to say in favor of religion, but deems its influences irredeemably bad from first to last. It always tends, he finds, to grow more and more corrupt and corrupting. Christianity he seems to rank pretty low in the scale of religions, and thinks it could have gained predominance only after paganism had become very grossly superstitious, as it did after the establishment of the Empire. Christianity was itself a relative free thought. Free thought can, says Mr. Robertson, arise only out of the conflict of faiths. Still, skepticism is found everywhere, even among primitive and savage peoples. Persecution of it begins only when the material interests of the priests appear to be in jeopardy. So, religious wars cannot break out without political causes. Mr. Robertson holds to the unity of human nature in all ages and among all races, and says that pretending to explain an historic phenomenon by "national characteristics" is like explaining the action of opium by a soporific virtue—a remark which his readers may think becomes just or otherwise in proportion to the failure of the explanation to colligate different phenomena.

The modern part of the history, though drawn up with some ability, is not detailed enough to bring out its full interest. French and Dutch free thought, from Descartes to Robespierre, fills only thirty pages, and English deism another thirty. The ancient part is much more entertaining because of the author's theories.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia and Register of Important Events of the Year 1899. Third Series. Vol. IV. Appletons.
Bacon, F. The Wisdom of the Ancients, and New Atlantis. Cassells. 10c.
Bell, Lilian. As Seen by Me. Harpers. $1.25.
Belloc, Hilaire. Paris. London: Edward Arnold. 7s. 6d.
Brown, Bertha M. Physiology for the Laboratory. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85c.
Butler, A. G. The Choice of Achilles, and Other Poems. Henry Frowde. 2s. 6d.
Conway, Moncure D. Thomas Paine (1737-1809) et la Révolution dans les deux Mondes. Traduit de l'Anglais par F. Rabbe. Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie. 7 fr. 50c.
Corelli, Marie. Boy: A Sketch. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Cromwell, J. H. The American Business Woman. Putnams. $2.
Davidson, T. A History of Education. Scribners. $1.
Elson, H. W. Side-Lights on American History. Macmillan. Series II. 75c.
Frederica, Dr. P. Corpus Documentorum Inquisitionis Hæreticæ Pravitatis Neerlandicæ. Vierde Deel. Tijdvak der Hervorming in de Zestiende Eeuw (1514-23 September 1525). Ghent: J. Vuylsteke.
French, Dr. E. C. Food for the Sick: How to Prepare it; Food for the Baby. Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co. $1.
Gardiner, A. P. The House of Cariboo, and Other Tales from Arcadia. New York: A. P. Gardiner. $1.
Gray, Maxwell. The Last Sentence. Appletons. $1.
Herbermann, Prof. C. G. The Bellum Catilinæ of C. Sallustius Crispus. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn. $1.
Johnson, Prof. C. F. Outline History of English and American Literature. American Book Co. $1.25.
Jones, Mary C. European Travel for Women: Notes and Suggestions. Macmillan. $1.
Kingsley, Nellie F. The Story of Captain Meriwether Lewis and Captain William Clark. [Baldwin's Biographical Booklets.] Werner School Book Co.
Markham, Violet R. South Africa, Past and Present: An Account of its History, Politics, and Native Affairs, Followed by Some Personal Reminiscences of African Travel during the Crisis preceding the War. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Scribners. $3.50.
McCarthy, E. Familiar Fish, their Habits and Capture: A Practical Book on Fresh-Water Game Fish. Appletons. $1.50.
Mee, Huan. A Diplomatic Woman. Harpers. $1.
Nelson, Kathleen G. Tuen, Slave and Empress. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Official Illustrated Catalogue Fine Arts Exhibit United States of America, Paris Exposition of 1900. Boston: Noyes, Platt & Co.
O'Hagan, Thos. Studies in Poetry, Critical, Analytical, Interpretative. Boston: Marlier, Callanan & Co.
Osborne, D. The Secret of the Crater (new ed. of A Mountain Moloch). Putnams. $1.
Parker, G. An Unpardonable Liar. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. $1.
Potter, H. A. Dix Contes Modernes des Meilleurs Auteurs du Jour. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Rutherford, W. G. St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans: A New Translation with a Brief Analysis. Macmillan. $1.25.
Scidmore, Eliza R. China, the Long-lived Empire. The Century Co. $2.50.
Scribe, E. Le Verre d'Eau, ou les Effets et les Causes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Sheridan, R. B. The Filipino Martyrs: A Story of the Crime of February 4, 1899. John Lane.

Second Impression of a Remarkable Novel.

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The First Section of the Dictionary will soon be ready. On application to the Author his agent will send a copy of the New Edition to any public institution in the U.S., post-paid and duty free, for $1.75.

(The edition is being rapidly sold off in Bombay.)

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